

The Literary Digest

A WEEKLY COMPENDIUM OF THE CONTEMPORANEOUS THOUGHT OF THE WORLD

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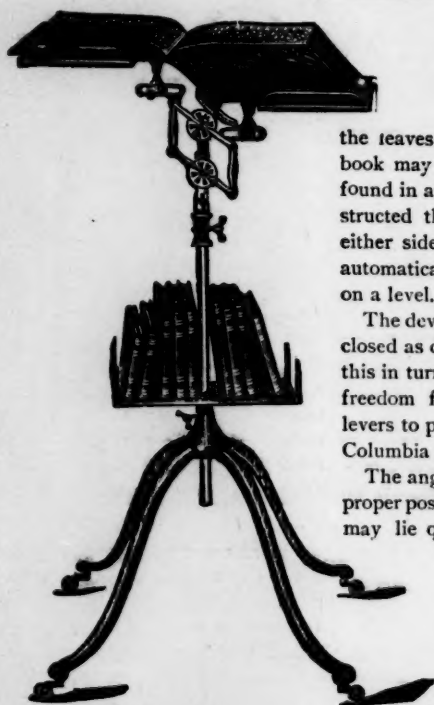
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TOPICS OF THE DAY.

SECRETARY CARLISLE'S SECOND CURRENCY BILL.

OWING to the discovery that the Currency Bill proposed by Secretary Carlisle had no chance of success in the House, that Bill has been retired, and a substitute Bill presented embodying the amendments which had been suggested by the more friendly critics of the original Bill. Secretary Carlisle and Mr. Springer hope that the substitute will command enough Democratic votes to pass the House.

The two important changes contained in the new Bill are those permitting National banks to retain their present bond-secured circulation indefinitely, instead of compelling the sale of the bonds and the supply of new security, and abolishing the joint liability of all National banks for the redemption at par of the notes of failed banks. Another new feature is one providing that notes not redeemed upon presentation shall draw 6 per cent. interest from date of suspension of the bank responsible for them. The provisions regarding State banks are made more strict.

It does not appear, however, that the substitute finds more favor in the Press than the original enjoyed. Some, in fact, regard the amended Bill as even more illogical and mischievous.

Open to the Same Objections as the First.—"The new Bill, while more systematically and clearly drawn than the Secretary's, is open to nearly all the serious faults in matter that fatally encumbered the measure it supersedes, while it omits the important clause expressly making the stockholders liable for the notes. The only amendments of any moment are the withdrawal of the clause making the banks mutually and indefinitely responsible for each other's notes in case of failure, and the granting of permission to National banks to continue the present bond basis of guarantee if they so prefer, while allowing them to adopt the new basis at their pleasure. These changes are valuable so far as they go; but they cannot very materially affect the general acceptability of the Bill to the people and the banks, or its chances of adoption. As a whole, the new Bill stands open to virtually the same insurmountable objections that made public acceptance of the old one impossible. As the two measures are so nearly identical, the changes needed in the original Bill about equally

apply to the substitute measure. We have already fully indicated the nature of the required amendments, and need but briefly recapitulate the required modifications.

"If this old Bill under a new name is to be made acceptable to the interests most concerned, it must be amended—(1) by including an authorization to borrow money to retire the legal tenders; (2) by rescinding the proposed 30 per cent. 'Guarantee Fund' and the suggested 'Safety Fund'; (3) by providing a more effective system of current redemptions than is implied in the indefinite hint expressed on that point; (4) by rescinding the discrimination in favor of the State banks in the matter of conditions of issue and by making those conditions and also those relating to redemptions identical, or as nearly so as possible, as between the two classes of banks; (5) by rescinding the restrictions as to denominations of notes; (6) by prescribing for borrowings through the issue of 2 per cent. exchequer notes, payable at the discretion of the Government from surplus revenues, made available for bank reserves to the extent of one-half of such reserves, and to be issued either through public offer or in the way of ordinary disbursements, or both; (7) by restoring the Secretary's proposal to abolish reserves against deposits of National banks, and (8) by providing that, in the case of failed banks, the notes shall bear 5 per cent. interest for the period between the date of failure and the readiness of the receiver to redeem the notes; which should be in lieu of any specific fund to retire the notes instantly on failure."—*The Journal of Commerce (Ind.)*, New York.

The Whole Scheme Ought to Be Shelved.—"The substitute meets some of the minor objections to the Bill fairly well, but it does not meet the principal objections at all. As Mr. Springer stated in explaining the substitute, it does not change the general features of the original Bill. There are the same provisions for expansion by both the National and the State banks, and the possible expansion is limited only by the amount of greenbacks and Sherman notes available for deposit in the guarantee funds. There is the same impairment of the security for bank issues. There is nearly the same advantage given to State banks over National banks. There is the same provision for the issue of forty-four or more additional kinds of currency to the existing kinds already too numerous. Besides, there is provision for two kinds of National bank notes, and this with the approval of Mr. Carlisle, who told the committee that he considered a similar provision fatal to the Eckels plan. In short, except as to some of the details, the substitute is quite as objectionable as the original Bill.

"The whole scheme is conceived in a spirit of hostility toward the National banking system. . . .

"It is not necessary now to speak of the differences between the substitute and the original Bill. The whole scheme ought to be shelved, and it cannot be put out of the way too soon for the good of the country. It is hardly possible that it can become a law in anything like its present shape. But the mere fact that such a measure is pending, that it is supported by the Secretary of the Treasury, and that it may pass the House, is bad for the country, and exceedingly bad for the Treasury."—*The Herald (Dem.)*, Chicago.

A Step Backward.—"No change has been made regarding the State-bank feature of the Carlisle Bill, and so long as that remains true the entire scheme must prove utterly objectionable to all right-thinking people. It would be turning the hands of the clock backward with a vengeance if the people of this country should submit to a banking measure that would permit unlimited issues of State and private bank notes without any absolute guarantee of redemption, after thirty years of satisfactory experience with paper money guaranteed by the Government. Under the proposed scheme embodied in the Springer substitute for the Carlisle Bill neither the National banks nor State and private

banks would be required, under any circumstances, to keep more than 35 per cent. of legal-tender money as a reserve for the redemption of their notes. The security of the remaining 65 per cent. would rest wholly upon the assets of each bank issuing notes, and it is easy to imagine that many banks might be started for the sole purpose of issuing notes and then go into insolvency with no available assets on hand."—*The Times (Rep.)*, Denver.

Complicates Rather than Simplifies.—"It has been pretended that this reform would simplify the currency, but Bill No. 2 does exactly the contrary; it creates a new kind of banknotes, against which no bonds would be deposited, and on which it would not be stated that they are so secured, and besides creates forty-four new kinds of State-bank notes, each depending for security upon such regulations as the different States may enact, and on the fidelity of the officers of different States. As there is absolutely nothing in the new plan to make State banks less dangerous, nothing to equalize their taxes with those of National banks, nothing to restrict their issues to notes of \$10 or more, and nothing to keep within safe or decent limits their issues of currency, it follows that there is nothing to give National banks a chance for existence in competition with wild-cat State banks, nothing to prevent the destruction of the National system, and therefore nothing to prevent the rapid sale of about \$200,000,000 United States bonds now held by National banks, with all the disastrous consequences of such sale."—*The Tribune (Rep.)*, New York.

Brief Comment.

"There would be two kinds of currency afloat—one based on the faith and credit of the Government, and the other on the assets and capital of the banks. It is needless to say that the former would be preferred and would very likely command a premium—a condition to be dreaded by every sound business man and financier."—*The Democrat (Rep.)*, Rochester.



UNCLE SAM:—"That's a mighty poor Santa Claus!"—*The Press*, Philadelphia.

character as to warrant the serious consideration by Congress of the substituted measure. The original scheme was fatally defective, and the latter one is almost, if not quite, equally so."—*The Ledger (Rep.)*, Philadelphia.

"The substitute will meet many of the objections urged against the pending Bill and will permit of an easy transition on the part of National banks from the existing system to the new system. Thus there will be less disturbance of business than would otherwise occur."—*The Dispatch (Dem.)*, Richmond.

"The most noticeable things about the substitute which are apparent on a cursory examination are the failure to make any provision for elasticity in the new currency and the continuance with some modifications of the provision for the issuance of notes by State banks."—*The Free Press (Dem.)*, Detroit.

"It seems clear that the new Bill is an improvement over the old one. The debate has thus already accomplished a good purpose. It will now turn upon the new measure. If that can stand the ordeal of discussion in and out of Congress, it will be reasonably safe to pass it. If it can not, it can be amended again.

"As we view both the original Bill and the substitute, the great question is, Will either of them do what every one—except the fiat money people—agrees must be done, that is, retire the greenbacks?"—*The News (Ind.)*, Indianapolis.

"Doubtless the substitute is an improvement on the original Bill. It could not well be otherwise. But the changes reported have not eliminated all the objectionable features, so that the new Bill is far from being a perfect plan of currency reform. It

still proposes to give the country a State-bank currency, to which the objections heretofore urged remain in full force. It is less oppressive in its provisions to the National banks than the Carlisle Bill, but it offers no additional inducement to these institutions to increase their circulation."—*The Bee (Rep.)*, Omaha.

"This substitute differs from the original Carlisle Bill in that it does not propose to force the National banks to retire their bills under existing charter rights unless they want to. This is a very important modification. It removes the menace of a bankers' panic in the Summer of 1895, which could not have been avoided under the original Bill. Of course such a relief is of incalculable importance. But it must not be forgotten, nor its importance underestimated, that so far as concerns the wild-cat the substitute is as bad as the original."—*The Inter Ocean (Rep.)*, Chicago.

"Mr. Springer's new Currency Bill is an improvement on the Carlisle Bill, but it contains the two principal defects of that measure, namely, State-bank notes and the 30 per cent. green-back deposit. The latter cannot be considered a banking measure at all. It is simply a method of enabling the Government to get rid of the bother of its legal-tender notes temporarily. It would not serve this purpose unless the banks would consent to take out circulation on those conditions, and we do not think that they would."—*The Evening Post (Ind.)*, New York.

"One of the most meritorious features of Mr. Carlisle's plan was that under its provisions the banks were not required to deposit United States bonds in the Treasury as a basis of circulation. This was one of the reasons *The Constitution* and other Democratic newspapers not of the cuckoo variety were led to indorse the Carlisle plan. But in the House of Representatives, where the agents of the Eastern bank syndicate swarm, Mr. Carlisle's plan has not survived Mr. Springer's explanation of its features. Why? Because it is not satisfactory to the banks, and that which is not satisfactory to the banks has not a ghost of a show before the present Congress."—*The Constitution (Dem.)*, Atlanta.

TO TEST THE CONSTITUTIONALITY OF THE INCOME-TAX.

A SUIT has been brought in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia to test the constitutionality of the Income-Tax Law. The petitioner is John G. Moore, a member of the brokerage firm of Moore and Schley, of New York, through which a number of Senators are believed to have speculated in sugar stocks during the pendency of the Tariff Bill in Congress. Mr. Moore, in his petition, asks the Court for an injunction to restrain the Commissioner of Internal Revenue from collecting the Income-Tax, the principal ground being that the law, by providing for taxation of incomes of corporations and again taxing the dividends of the same corporations as the income of the private shareholding individuals, wrongfully duplicates the tax on such individuals. Another objection is that only a certain class of citizens are subject to the tax, the majority being exempt. Finally, complaint is made that the income of aliens residing in this country is taxed, although it may be derived from sources in foreign countries. The petition is reported to have been drawn by ex-Senator Edmunds, who is retained as senior counsel in the case. The Government will be represented by the United States District-Attorney of the District of Columbia, who is understood to be under the general direction of Attorney-General Olney in this matter.

The suit is attracting wide attention, and an early decision is anticipated. A rumor that Mr. Moore is acting as the agent of the Sugar Trust and other big combinations of capital in the pending contest has been emphatically denied by him.

Many distinguished lawyers are said to be of the opinion that the tax is clearly unconstitutional.

The Suit Brought in Good Faith.—"The suit brought by Mr. John G. Moore of this city to test the constitutionality of the Income-Tax Law is clearly brought in good faith, and is one that any citizen who cares to go to the expense and trouble has a plain

right to bring. Mr. Moore has been more or less criticized as a 'capitalist' or the 'representative of capitalists.' The latter he frequently is in his business as a stock-broker, but not in this lawsuit. The former he also is, or he would not be liable to a tax on dividends big enough to carry his case before the Supreme Court. But we know of no reason why a capitalist should submit to a law which he believes to be without warrant in the Constitution, if by judgment of the courts he can get his belief confirmed.

"Mr. Moore has employed excellent counsel, one of them being ex-Senator Edmunds of Vermont, and the others Messrs. Shellabarger and Wilson of Washington. All these gentlemen have been honored members of one or the other house of Congress. They are not likely to have advised their client to bring a suit for which there is not a reasonable basis in law and fact, and they are all of them quite incapable of taking part in a suit intended to embarrass or liable really to embarrass the Government. Indeed, the course of Mr. Moore seems rather patriotic than otherwise. If the Income-Tax Law be contrary to the Constitution, as he thinks, and as he is advised by his eminent counsel, it is certainly better for the Government to know that fact through the tribunals before great expense and still greater liability shall have been incurred. The tribunals cannot examine the matter and pass upon it unless it is brought before them in a suit in the ordinary course of litigation."—*The Times (Dem.)*, New York.

A Useless Suit Encouraged by Fat Fees.—"Men like Mr. Moore who have 'money to burn' will find no difficulty in multiplying suits of this kind. Business is dull with eminent lawyers as with other people, and fat fees will induce those gentlemen to aid clients in finding out by expensive suits at law what they might learn much more cheaply by reading the decisions of the United States Supreme Court.

"The Income-Tax has come to stay. It is just, constitutional, and especially commends itself to the popular sense of right. It will be so altered by future Congresses as to make it conform more closely to the demands of justice, but it will not be abolished. It will be graduated, so that incomes below \$5,000 shall be untaxed and incomes below \$10,000 taxed at a nominal rate, while above that figure the rate will increase with the amount of the income.

"The burdens of Government will be laid upon accumulated wealth where now they rest upon industry. Superfluity instead of necessity will be made to pay."—*The World (Dem.)*, New York.

Unfortunate Auspices.—"It is not exactly fortunate that the first suit to test the constitutionality of the Income-Tax should be brought by an operator in Wall Street who is popularly supposed to have made large sums of money by virtue of his close connection with the Senate Chamber in Washington and the violent fluctuations in the price of Sugar Trust shares during the past year. The legal questions involved in the suit will not be affected by the plaintiff's operations in the stock market, but popular sympathy is not likely to be awakened in his behalf to the extent that it might otherwise be."—*The Herald (Ind.)*, Boston.

Can Be Overthrown Only on a Technicality.—"It is not impossible, we suppose, that even Wall Street brokers sometimes have these spells of heroic altruism. Be that as it may, however, it is well enough that the question of the constitutionality of the Income-Tax Law should be brought before the courts thus promptly and settled as soon as possible. It was a question that was bound to come up sooner or later any way. . . .

"It may as well be understood at the outset, however, that the only chance of its being pronounced unconstitutional by the courts is on the ground of some small technicality or some carelessness in framing the provisions of this particular act. It is possible that it may be found that this particular law imposing an Income-Tax violates in some detail some constitutional right, but as to the constitutionality of the Income-Tax itself that would seem to have been well established by previous court decisions. We have had one Income-Tax before, it must be remembered, and it might have occurred, one would say, to those who have expressed the opinion that this new tax can never be lawfully collected to ask themselves how it was collected before and whether the constitutionality of it was not decided then. As a matter of fact our first Income-Tax Law, enacted in 1861, remained impregnable on the statute books until Congress itself

voluntarily abandoned it in 1872, and in the mean time several court decisions were made indirectly sustaining the validity of such a tax as it imposed. Later, in 1880, the Supreme Court rendered a direct decision to the same effect, which must be said to settle the question beyond all doubt."—*The Journal (Ind.)*, Providence.

The Law Will Probably Stand.—"There are two sides to almost every question, and it is not strange that men who stand high in the legal profession are willing to accept retainers in a case to show an apparent element of unconstitutionality in the Income-Tax. Still, with all regard for the eminent lawyers who are to conduct the appeal to the Federal Courts in behalf of the New York business men, and without retracting in any way what has already been said in these columns from time to time in regard to the injustice of the Income-Tax schedules of the Gorman Bill, it may safely be said that the chances are that the Federal Courts will eventually decide that there does not exist sufficient cause upon which to declare the tax void.

"Taxation has been defined as 'a subtraction of a small portion of the constantly accumulating mass of private property, for the purposes of the Government by which the tax is imposed.'

"It is distinguished from confiscation by the aim of those who authorize the tax, this aim usually being to promote the general welfare and provide for the defense of the people at large, including those who pay the tax. Taxation is distinguished from other seizures of property by the fact that it is justified to some extent by the needs of the community; and therefore to justify any taxation the avowed purpose must not only be a good one, but must directly relate to some public need.

"If, for example, the sole aim and purpose of the Income-Tax were to punish those who accumulated wealth beyond a certain bound, it is likely that the New York attorneys would be able to secure from the Supreme Court a decision to the effect that such a taxation is unconstitutional, and while it is possible to draw an inference from the language of some demagogues who have advocated a graduated Income-Tax, that such a tax in their minds is chiefly justified because of the way in which it bears on men of wealth, yet there is nothing in the law itself nor in the declarations of Congress warranting a judicial conclusion that the sole or any part of the purpose of the tax is punitive. At least the Income-Tax is a revenue tax just as other taxes imposed in the internal revenue schedules of the Gorman Bill."—*The Advertiser (Rep.)*, Boston.

JOHN BURNS DISAPPOINTS THE NEWSPAPERS.

WHEN John Burns, the English labor-leader, arrived in New York a few weeks ago, he was heartily welcomed by the papers of all parties and shades of opinion as a great, practical tribune of labor and a reformer of conservative and constructive tendencies. Since then a striking change has come over the spirit of the daily Press toward Mr. Burns. He is denounced as reckless, tactless, ungrateful, extreme, and altogether "too fresh." Some of his utterances at the Denver Convention and opinions expressed in subsequent speeches and interviews are responsible for this changed attitude. The action of the Convention on the Socialist plank for the State control of industry, which Mr. Burns favored and the Convention rejected, aroused his disgust and he is reported to have used such expressions regarding them as "a conglomerate mass of men on the make," "retired boozers, with all the evidence of subsidy on their faces," and "bounders on the bounce." Mr. Burns, it is charged further, has attacked the United States Constitution as an ancient instrument unfit for present conditions. He denounced Chicago as "a pocket edition of hell," and found our municipal government absolutely disgraceful. Our newspapers are too sensational, he says, and their scare head-lines puerile. Corporations here are more tyrannical and greedy than anywhere else. A lot of other remarks of the same tenor are attributed to Mr. Burns, and he has not denied them.

Word comes from London that "all England" is anxious to hear the "final verdict" of this country on John Burns. We do

not know how long we may have to wait for the *final* verdict, but here is at all events the present verdict of the daily Press:

Insolent and Absurd.—"John Burns, M.P., would be more successful as a propagandist if he had rather more decent manners. The spectacle of this foreigner, a fortnight after landing on our shores, publicly posing as an expounder of the Constitution, and telling Americans what Washington and Hamilton and Jefferson meant to make our Government, is ludicrous enough to provoke a universal guffaw. But it is as insolent as it is absurd. The American public cannot be charged with intolerance. It has permitted Most, and Mowbray, and others of their kidney, to come over here and rant and rave to their hearts' content. It let John Burns, M.P., come also, and did not seek to restrain him from preaching his gospel of plunder. And if, when he returns to England, he sees fit to make speeches and write books abusive of America, it will not object, nor be surprised. But it does expect, and has a right to demand, that while he is here he will keep a measurably civil tongue in his mouth.

"For any foreigner to rail against the country he is visiting and insult and denounce its Government is a gross violation of the laws of hospitality. For one who is a member of the chief governing body of his own country to do so is scandalous beyond description. Suppose an American member of Congress were to go to England and make stump-speeches, reviling the Queen, denouncing the Government, telling his hearers what the British Constitution really means, and launching blasphemous diatribes against the social order, would there not be a pretty pother? Would there not be a storm of protests against such 'Yankee insolence'? That is exactly what John Burns, M.P., has been doing. What do American workmen think of it? They have not generally lacked patriotism. Do they enjoy having a foreigner, a confessed enemy of American institutions, come hither and insult them and malign their country?"—*The Tribune, New York*.

Time to Kick Out Foreign Detractors.—"John Burns has been saying naughty things about Chicago. He has intimated that Chicago is a circumscribed edition of a large locality whose chief industry is the making of fireworks and whose name is not China at that. Shorn of circumlocution, Mr. Burns's exact language is that 'Chicago is a pocket edition of hell.' . . .

"John Burns doesn't understand the first principles of Americanism if he vainly imagines that his flippant epigram will be received as corroborative of Stead's libel on the fair name and fame of that very wicked, but very delightful city.

"The people of America relish one another's jibes at Chicago, and Chicago in return receives them without resentment; but when the Steads, the Doyles, and the Burnses come over here to air their abortive English opinions at the expense of the truth and our forbearance, it's time to call a halt or kick them out."—*The Journal, Detroit*.

Too Much of an Egoist.—"There is no false modesty, or any other kind of modesty, in John Burns. He has come over here to reform America in a fortnight, and he has no time to waste in beating around the bush. Yet he freely and bluntly offered to devote a whole month of his precious time to any city in America that would seek his aid in the reconstruction of its municipal government. It is a tempting offer for those Chicagoans who have been spending years of thought on this subject, but Chicago has some modesty, even if Mr. Burns has not. We would not for the world do anything that might make the large-headed Englishman lose his boat at the end of his stipulated two weeks. They must miss him at home. . . .

"John Burns has a clever tongue in his head, but there is too much ego in his cosmos to make this advice available for use here or anywhere else. He mixes too much antidote with his medicine. When he does say a good thing, he says it in such a way as to make one too tired to bear it."—*The Journal, Chicago*.

"A great many people are quoting what John Burns has to say about American industrial conditions. At best Mr. Burns's observations can be only those of the surface student. He visits several of our cities each week. A portion of his time is spent in receptions, another portion of it in public speaking. We presume that he eats and sleeps like other people. What time has he for careful study of anything? We have noticed that he is prolific in fault-finding. In fact, he has too much to say about American methods concerning which he can know but little. Mr. Burns

would display better taste if he would put in more time in study of our industrial life and cease fault-finding until he shall have had time to be reasonably sure of his ground."—*The Republican, Cedar Rapids*.

"Mr. John Burns, the English labor agitator, would have stood better in this country if he had remained at home. Distance has lent a good deal of enchantment to Mr. Burns, as it has to other things, and nearness has disposed of a large part of it. Burns has been in this country but a few weeks, yet he presumes to speak of its institutions and of its cities as if he had made them the subject of long study that fully qualified him to pronounce judgment. He is conceited and bumptious, and has succeeded in making himself very disagreeable even to the men who invited him here. His disease is popularly known as 'big head.'"—*The Advertiser, Portland*.

"John Burns does not seem to capture the American labor-unions. His advocacy of Socialism is repudiated, and he has not won applause by denouncing the President's use of the army to keep the peace in Chicago, and asserting that the army, if it numbered 25,000 men, had 24,900 men too many. The labor-unions know that the army made no interference with their action. For a member of Parliament, his criticisms on our Government are somewhat wanton. Moreover, he is scarcely called upon to declare Chicago a pocket edition of hell, or hell a pocket edition of Chicago. Mr. Burns strikes Americans as somewhat crude, if not altogether fresh."—*The Republican, Springfield*.

"The English agitator has erred in being too ready to denounce and to advise without first well informing himself as to the conditions obtaining here and under which the American labor movement must progress. It was eminently British that he should do so, and perhaps equally characteristically American that we should all hearken eagerly to his criticisms and opinions. The readiness of the cockney to give his opinion upon the United States immediately upon landing therein is only less ridiculous than the gravity with which the Americans listen to his valuable views."—*The Times, Chicago*.

"Mr. Burns came to this country with preconceived notions. Foreign agitators marvel that they are so unsuccessful in convincing our workmen that they are downtrodden. Mr. Burns is probably no exception to the rule. His visit to this country will help but little the spread of the gospel of Socialism, but he may have done some good by his conservatism on the subject of strikes and his avowed and demonstrated opposition to violence."—*The Ledger, Philadelphia*.

TRINITY CHURCH AND ITS TENEMENTS.

THE old agitation about the management of its real estate by the Trinity Church Corporation has recently been revived with much vigor. In 1857, when an attempt was made to dissolve the Trinity Corporation on the ground that the church trust was illegal and against public policy, the bad management of the church's tenement-houses was a prominent feature of the agitation. Now, in connection with an official investigation into the entire tenement-house system of the city of New York, the condition of the Trinity tenements has attracted special attention. Trinity owns 148 tenements, and is one of the greatest land-owners in New York. An investigation of nineteen of its tenements by the Board of Health, undertaken as a direct result of the testimony adduced before the State Tenement-House Commission, shows that the death-rate in these tenements for the past five years was 35 per cent. higher than the general death-rate of the city. The inspectors found them to be among the worst in New York; they are shaky, unsafe, dark, and ill-ventilated; the water-supply is bad, and the plumbing still worse. Some of them have stagnant water about them, and deposits of offal and garbage are found in others.

On behalf of the Corporation it is urged that it is not behind any landlord in the care of its property, and the Rector of Trinity Church, the Rev. Morgan Dix, has protested in a letter to *The Churchman*, New York, against hasty condemnation of the Corporation. He asserts that there is no ground for the attack, and

asks the public to suspend judgment pending an official statement of the facts by the Corporation. Dr. Dix, however, makes, by way of explanation, a few general statements, as follows:

"It should be understood, for example, that none of the houses criticized were *built* by Trinity Church. The lands on which they stand were leased years ago by Trinity Church on long leases; the buildings were erected by sub-tenants of the original lessees as *dwelling-houses*, and ordinarily occupied by a single family and owned by the tenants. As leases expired the church Corporation acquired the ownership of some of these houses; of others they renewed the leases; year after year they have expended large sums of money in improving their condition, and in many cases they have torn down rear buildings to prevent the too close contiguity of dwellings. It may be said that much more might have been and ought to have been expended in such improvements; but that is the easy remark of persons who have no responsibility in the matter; the Corporation must be the judge of its ability to do all that might be done. . . .

"There is ground for the suspicion that among the reasons for directing this torrent of assault against Trinity Church is this, that a pressure of public opinion may be brought to bear on the Corporation and compel us to tear down old structures and erect model tenement-houses in their place. . . .

"The Corporation is not without experience. It has already erected ten such houses, not one of which has incurred the criticism of the committee; but not one of them is full; there are many vacant apartments, and if filled they would not net more than four to five per cent., and, in fact, have not netted more than from three to three and a quarter per cent.

"Besides this, it is evident to real-estate men that business is coming up above Canal Street slowly but surely, and that the whole of the church property from Canal Street up to Fourteenth Street will soon be needed for business purposes; under which condition of things it would be wasteful policy to expend money there in the erection of buildings soon to become useless. We have no desire to maintain on the property the class of houses now under consideration. The Trustees do not feel that it is their duty to engage in enterprises which do not commend themselves to the business judgment."

Dr. Dix's statement is not, however, accepted as a satisfactory defense of conditions as portrayed in the Health Board's report. We append what seem to be some of the most discriminating comments:

Totally Inadequate Defenses.—"We are bound to say that these defenses appear to us totally inadequate. It may not be wise for Trinity Church to build new and model tenements in a district in which the demand for residences is sure to be short-lived. But this is no excuse for maintaining tenements in such condition that the death-rate is considerably above the average. No pecuniary considerations can justify any landlord, least of all a great church, in maintaining tenements which are destructive to life and demoralizing to character. Nor is it any defense to aver that careless or vicious tenants keep the tenement in a filthy condition, and would misuse the Croton water if put in. A man or corporation that cannot give the time and attention necessary to *compel* tenants to keep their tenement in a proper sanitary condition has no right to play the *rôle* of landlord. Trinity Church is expending large sums of money in philanthropic and missionary work in New York City, but it ought to recognize the fact that the home is the first and fundamental institution, the basis alike of the Church and the State, and that a policy which demoralizes the home by giving it dirty, dangerous, and debasing surroundings cannot be defended or excused on the ground that the landlord's profits are devoted to Christian and philanthropic uses."—*The Outlook (Unden.)*, New York.

Must Drop Business if it is Incompatible with Religion.—"It is not sufficient justification of a great religious body to say that it does not rise in its business methods above the manners and usages of the day. The Trustees have already said to the New York papers that it is with Trinity Church as it is with other real estate owners in New York; that it is a matter of doing business in this particular way or not doing business at all. Very well; the majority of decent Christians would judge that it were better not to do business at all. The Lord's money earned in this way must be abhorrent to high Heaven. It is pleasant to

note that the charge has never been made that Trinity Church squanders or misappropriates her income. The story of the New York reporter about the soft snaps of the rector and assistant rectors of Trinity Church is all bosh. The income of Trinity is that of a small kingdom, but royal work is done with it. Here is not the point of complaint. Trinity Church must face her responsibility in this century or the next, whether it shall poison social man at the fountainhead to get money with which to save souls. If Trinity finds that it cannot join business and religion perfectly, the business is the first part of its work to be abandoned."—*The Tribune (Rep.)*, Detroit.

A Wretched Travesty on Christianity.—"It is not an answer to say, as Rev. M. Dix does, that 'none of the houses criticized were built by Trinity Church,' or, as Colonel Cruger says, that 'the tenement-houses belonging to the Trinity Corporation are, for the most part, extremely old dwellings which were years ago converted into tenements without inside plumbing.' Colonel Cruger accuses, as well as excuses, and Rev. Dr. Dix avoids the real purport of the charges. There is no defense on moral, philanthropic, or Christian grounds for the ownership by Trinity Church Corporation of a single tenement which fits the description of those described in the testimony before the Tenement-House commission, excepting inability to rebuild or repair them. If the income of Trinity Church is not large enough to permit such repairs, or if there are other reasons which make such changes impossible, there is so much justification for leaving things as they are. In such a case it might be better for the influence of Trinity Church as a teacher of Christianity that it invest its money in something besides tenement-house property. It is not proved that Trinity Church is shut up to such necessity as this, nor is it proved that it is impossible for it to make its tenements fit habitations for human beings instead of leaving many of them dilapidated, unhealthy, and unsafe. What is proved is that Trinity has an income of about \$600,000 a year, half of which is spent on its own and other churches, and \$100,000 of which goes into its estate, and that the trustees prefer to so manage this vast property as to keep the income up to about this level. By degrees, as fast as it can profitably be done, these old tenements are being replaced where possible by business buildings. In the course of years these mockeries of human houses will be destroyed, and Trinity will all the time be growing richer, while the men and women living in the rookeries will be suffering and dying."—*The Republican (Ind.)*, Springfield.

Business Principles Applied.—"So far as the administration of the estate is concerned, the Trinity Corporation can only be guided by business principles, whatever charitable disposition is made of the income. The very people who complain loudest now would be equally vociferous if the Corporation had spent large sums in remodeling old houses for the short time that they are to remain tenements. It is useless to talk in this connection about the tenements over which the Corporation has no control. Of those for which it is directly responsible, competent and unprejudiced examination would show that they are neither better nor worse than other tenements owned by conscientious, prudent people. No individual owner of property in the district where most of the Trinity land is situated, considering the uncertainty that surrounds its disposition in the near future, would be blamed because he refused to incur inevitable loss by rebuilding tenements which have grown old and may be lacking in what are termed 'improvements,' but which are not always unalloyed benefits to the tenants. Nor should the Trinity Corporation be."—*Record and Guide (Real Estate)*, New York.

END OF THE NEW YORK POLICE INVESTIGATION.—Saturday, December 29, was the closing day of the Lexow Committee's investigation of the Police Department of New York. The last witness on the stand was Superintendent Byrnes, the head of the force. A brief inquiry into his record of thirty-two years' service revealed nothing plainly discreditable to him, although he admitted that much of his fortune, now amounting to about \$300,000, has been amassed by him through rich and influential friends like George Gould, who guided his investments in recognition of services rendered them in the ordinary course of his official duties. Superintendent Byrnes admitted that the condition of the Police Department is very bad, and that it needs a thorough reorganization. He claimed that his efforts in the line of reform had been thwarted by the Commissioners, and favored concentration of authority. The curse of the department, he thought, had been the interference of politicians with appointments and promotions. The Committee will now prepare its report to the State Senate. It is believed that the Legislature will authorize the Committee to proceed with the investigation of other branches of the municipal government of New York.

RACE-WAR IN GEORGIA.

A SHOCKING story of a sanguinary race-war in Brooks County, Georgia, was laid by the Press before the public on Christmas Eve. It was reported that several hundred white men were in arms and patrolling the roads, while a large number of blacks were assembled and ready for a conflict. The trouble, so the story ran, was started by the unprovoked killing of a white man named Isom by a negro named Pike. Pike made his escape, and the friends of the murdered man organized a posse in pursuit of him. They killed his stepfather, an inoffensive old negro, for refusing to reveal Pike's hiding-place, although he protested that he knew nothing. A number of other negroes were visited and shot down, and women are said to have been barbarously beaten. The Governor called out troops and suppressed the disorder. Not a single member of the lynching party was killed.

So much has been said recently on the lynching problem that nothing new is elicited by the discussion of cases almost daily reported. The race-war in Georgia, however, is notable for its magnitude, and it is interesting to mark its treatment by representative journals of the North and South.

An American Armenia.—"For weeks past the newspapers of this country have had almost daily accounts of the massacre of hundreds of people living in Armenia, Asia Minor. The whole civilized world was shocked by this illustration of Asiatic barbarism, and the enlightened governments of both hemispheres have thought it their duty to inquire into the occurrence and to bring the full force of their influence to bear upon the Turkish Government to punish the perpetrators and prevent such barbarities in the future. Public sentiment in every civilized country has seconded this effort to compel Turkey to hold its barbarous tribes in check.

"The same sentiment which condemned these atrocities in Armenia will denounce just as strongly the occurrences in Georgia during the past few days. They have been as brutal, and, for aught that is now known, they have no more excuse than those that have reddened the soil of Kurdistan. The killing of a white man by a negro, with which crime the trouble began, is claimed to have been causeless, but as the negro's side of the story has not been heard, it will be well to suspend judgment on that point. But even if this claim is well founded, it furnishes no just excuse for the outrages committed on the blacks by the whites that followed. Seven negroes have been killed, women subjected to the most cruel and barbarous treatment, and, as a despatch to the Democratic *Cincinnati Enquirer* from Quitman, Ga., says, 'outrages committed that will almost equal the hideous crimes recently perpetrated upon inoffensive Armenians.'

"Southern Georgia, and especially Brooks County, has gained an unenviable reputation for outrages on the colored people. The wanton burning of the colored school at Quitman ten years ago will not soon be forgotten. With these revelations of crimes and social conditions in Georgia, it might be well to reserve American sympathy and efforts at investigation for home use and not waste them in Armenia."—*The Press (Rep.)*, Philadelphia.

Mob Judgment Not Better than Legal Processes.—"It is characteristic of mob violence that accurate reports of what occurs when it is resorted to are hard to obtain. People who know the facts are generally afraid or unwilling to talk; those who do not know them, or know them imperfectly, draw very liberally upon their imaginations. Hence numerous distorted and conflicting statements. . . . The assumption that because the process of the courts is slow and uncertain, the judgment of the mob is swift and infallible is not borne out by the facts. Mobs not only make mistakes that are gross and irremediable, but they resort to methods that the spirit of civilization has discarded, not merely because they are cruel and revolting, but because experience has demonstrated them to be worse than useless."—*The Courier-Journal (Dem.)*, Louisville.

Absurd and Unfair Exaggeration.—"The deplorable Brooks County affair is a picnic to our Northern Republican contemporaries, as a matter of course. . . .

"The lawlessness in Brooks County was bad enough, but it does not justify the comments of the Republican newspapers. A

few negroes were killed in hot blood because they were engaged in a conspiracy to murder the members of a posse who had arrested one of their number a few days ago, and the killing of Mr. Isom was the first step in their program. A woman who attempted to shield Isom's murderer was beaten, but the talk about barbarities as shocking as the Armenian outrages and too horrible to be printed is ridiculous rot, invented out of the whole cloth. Under the same circumstances just such lawlessness would have occurred in New York, and the recent beating and tarring and feathering of Mr. and Mrs. Berry, in Sullivan County, in that State, is a case in point.

"But all good citizens in Georgia regret the Brooks County outbreak, and they will gladly aid the authorities in enforcing the law. Possibly innocent negroes are sometimes murdered in the South, but so are innocent whites, and it is grossly unjust to take these exceptional crimes and exaggerate them to the injury of the law-abiding people of this section.

"At the very time the negro outlaws in Brooks County were feeling the vengeance of Isom's friends, 7,000,000 blacks in the South were made happy by the Christmas bounties and benefactions heaped upon them by their white neighbors. No race on Earth ever received more kindness and substantial aid than the negroes have received and are still receiving from the Southern people.

"In view of these well-known facts, how can our Northern contemporaries reconcile it to their sense of justice to cite the Armenian outrages as a parallel case to the punishment of the black outlaws in Brooks County?"—*The Constitution (Dem.)*, Atlanta.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE ON EXHIBITION.

THE history of female suffrage in New Zealand "is one of the most shameful pages in the annals of the colony." Such is the opening statement in an article in *The Westminster Review*, December. The author of the article, Norwood Young, refers particularly to the circumstances surrounding the passage of the law. The House of Representatives, we are told, had been for years playing with female suffrage, when suddenly the Ballance Government championed it, most of the members of the Cabinet having for years been "persistent determined opponents of that policy." It had been treated much as it has been treated in some of our State legislatures, as "a good joke," but Ballance himself, at the head of the Government, was in earnest. The lower House, moreover, was at strife with the upper House, and, confident that the measure would be thrown out in the upper House, the lower House passed it to put its opponent "in a hole." The upper House did as was expected. This was in 1892. Then the Government made twelve new peers, six for and six against the measure, and passed it again in 1893, Ballance having in the mean time died. This time it escaped defeat in the upper House by a margin of one vote, and, in September, 1893, was adopted simply "that the claims of women might be made the engine for petty electioneering triumph." Two months later the women voted at a general election, polling 90,000 votes as against 129,000 polled by the men; and in March of this year they voted on the liquor question. The results in both elections, Mr. Young thinks, "do not say much for woman as an independent factor in politics. . . . The women seem merely to have emphasized the drift of public opinion."

Four questions were to be answered at the ballot-box, in March, namely, whether the number of licenses should (1) remain unaltered, or (2) be reduced, or (3) be abolished, and (4) what persons should be elected to carry out the decision. The result is stated as follows:

"More than half the districts failed to carry any reduction in the number of licensed houses. One small country district of Scotch farmers managed to muster a three-fifths majority in favor of Prohibition; but all the others contented themselves with reduction only. One district elected a woman to their temperance committee, but in most cases the committees elected consisted largely of the nominees of the publicans. It may be assumed

that the reduction which these committees carry out will be considerably less than the maximum of 25 per cent.

"In spite of such efforts as had never before been put forward in the cause of temperance, the women altogether failed to take the opportunity afforded them of striking a heavy blow at the liquor traffic, to say nothing of the total abolition of public-houses, which they were so strongly urged to carry out. The publican has learned that the female vote is not likely to be much worse for him than the male. Female influence may have slightly jogged the elbow of the temperance reformer, but the results have been by no means of a startling character. Brewery shares have not fallen in value since women obtained the franchise."

Concerning the influence of woman's ballot in behalf of the moral purity of candidates in the general election, Mr. Young thinks it was very slight. He says:

"A dead set was made against one candidate whose youthful life, if rumors be correct—for nothing has been proved—left much to be desired. On the basis of rumor, electioneering, in this case, took the form of house-to-house scandal-mongering, conducted largely by women. The obnoxious candidate, a man of political experience and ability, was beaten,—a fact which has been magnified into the common assertion that the influence of women in New Zealand has improved the standard of moral purity among the legislators of the colony. It is a small fact upon which to build so desirable a result. Before women had the vote it was generally assumed that the politician in question would fail to obtain the suffrages of male voters. He had bolted from his party without making friends with his former opponents. Both Government and Opposition were against him. Moreover, he had been a violent opponent of the female suffrage, and, for this cause alone, the women would have passed him over, just as they did every other candidate who had opposed their claims. If to this we add that the individual whose defeat has been made to point so undeserved a moral was, on the day after the general election, elected by the votes of men and women to the post of mayor of the largest town in New Zealand, it will be seen on what flimsy material great principles are sometimes based. As a matter of fact, the new Parliament, elected by the votes of men and women, is neither better nor worse than the previous one, elected by the votes of men alone."

Mr. Young concludes his article with the following summary of results as interpreted by him:

"It would seem that the women were largely influenced by the prevailing currents of the time. Women seldom originate their own opinions; these are, in the main, a reflex of the opinions of those about them. The quickness and intelligence of women are nowhere more strongly shown than in their ready ability to pick up the tone and tendency of the moment. That they will continue to exhibit this sensitive, sympathetic character when recording their votes, seems the most important conclusion to be drawn from the example of New Zealand. Another way of expressing this would be to say that women will generally be found to favor what is expected to be the winning side."

A CHECK TO THE TELEPHONE MONOPOLY.

THE decision of Judge Carpenter of the United States Circuit Court at Boston, annulling the Berliner microphone patents owned by the Bell Telephone Company, is regarded as one of the most important rendered by the courts in recent years. The more optimistic editors hail it as the death-blow to the telephone monopoly in this country, and expect cheaper rates and better service as an immediate result of the competition of rival companies. Others are less confident of immediate practical benefits, believing that the Bell Telephone Company can maintain its supremacy and control without the aid of the Berliner patents.

We select a number of Press comments which will convey an adequate idea of the legal controversy and the scope of the decision.

Grounds of the Decision.—"The patent which has just been annulled was fraudulently secured. Of that there is no doubt

whatever. In 1877 there were three claimants for a patent on a telephone receiver. They were Edison, Blake, and Berliner. The same principle was involved in all three. The Bell Telephone Company bought the claims pending the contest before the Patent Bureau. The contest was continued with three sets of attorneys. The hearing was postponed at every calling on some ground or another until 1891. It was immaterial to the Bell Telephone people how the case would be decided. All they wanted was a patent for seventeen years. The decision came after fourteen years of waiting, and it was in favor of the Berliner device.

"Attorney-General Miller's attention was first directed to the fraud by a St. Louis electrician. Suit was then instituted at Boston, where the general offices of the American Bell Telephone Company are located, for annulment of the patent. It is this suit that has just been decided by Judge Carpenter. An appeal is to be taken, of course, but the Bell Telephone Company might as well give up the fight. Judge Carpenter has decided against the Berliner claim on two grounds. Besides the fraudulent delay, another reason is given for the annulment of this patent. The Court holds that it was anticipated by a patent issued to Berliner himself fifteen years ago, or three years subsequent to the time the contested claims were filed by respectively Berliner, Edison, and Blake. In the Court's opinion 'one of the functions of the device shown in the patent of 1880 (Berliner's), namely, the function of transmitting articulate speech, is identical with the sole object or function of the device covered by the patent of 1891, and the device for effecting the transmission of sound is identical in both patents.'

"The monopoly days of the Bell Telephone Company are over. It controls other patents, but they are not essential to a good telephone service. The patent on the switch on the magnets for ringing up the central office has not expired yet, but the same result can be obtained with an extra switch. The use of a permanent magnet in the transmitter is patented, but an electro-magnet may be used in its place. The variable contact microphone is a convenient device, but it is not essential. A very good substitute has been found for it. Some of the details of the switchboard and of the other appliances used in the central stations of the Bell Company are also protected by patent, but there are other devices that work just as satisfactorily.

"After the expiration of the original Bell patents a short time ago the Berliner receiver was the only really important patent controlled by the American Bell Telephone Company, and that is now public property.

"This decision is almost certain to result in the organization of rival companies and in a very material reduction of telephone rates in every city in the country."—*The Republic, St. Louis.*

Equity is the Letter of the Law.—"To those not interested in the financial welfare of the Bell Telephone Company, and possibly not under the control of the strict letter of the law, the equities in the case appear to rest on the side of Judge Carpenter's decision. . . .

"The intent of our patent laws is to grant special privileges to certain individuals—that is, they are to have, for a term of years, the unqualified right to the use of a discovery which they may make. It is not a contract in which there is a *quid pro quo* and in consequence of which both parties can be held to a strict legal accountability; but is, on the contrary, in the nature of a concession granted by one party to another for public reasons, without the giving of consideration.

"This being the case, if it can be shown that an individual or a company has enjoyed through a term of years all of the benefits, privileges, and emoluments which it is the intention of the patent law to accord, it can hardly be held as unwarrantable to assert that the concession has elapsed, and that those who have enjoyed it are not entitled, in consequence of the possible letter of the law, to a long continuance of privilege. In other words, the granting of privileges, equitably considered, rests upon broader ground than a narrow interpretation of the law."—*The Herald, Boston.*

Probable Results of the Decision.—"By this decision, unless reversed, the patents which formed the principal bulwarks of the telephone monopoly are ended, and, although the result may not be immediate, the ultimate end of placing that means of communication within reach of people of ordinary means is undoubted.

"This is the great material gain. There is an even greater

moral gain in the defeat of the juggle in the Patent Office, by which the same company owning two opposing claims for patents plays one against the other for the express purpose of delaying the issue of the patent and prolonging the monopoly under it. The jugglery by which the Berliner patent was held in the Patent Office for fourteen years, with the manifest intention of extending the Bell monopoly for that period, constituted a National scandal. The decision shows this to be an effort of greed that overreaches itself, and one of its most important phases is the laying down of the legal principle that those who are inclined to repeat that game in the future would, if they should attempt it, defeat its very purpose by voiding the patent. . . .

"Whatever shape these future developments may take, this decision, assuming the probability of its standing on appeal, holds out the promise that the telephone, heretofore available mainly for the business purposes and as a luxury of the wealthy, will come into general use among the people of moderate circumstances."—*The Dispatch, Pittsburg.*

Uncertainty of Public Benefits.—"Though the court of last resort should confirm this judgment, it does not surely follow that the general public will largely profit by it. There is scarcely a business in the world so naturally monopolistic as the telephone. You can parallel railroad and telegraph lines, because the two persons in communication must do their business with the same company. Street-car history in this city has proved that the constantly increasing difficulty and the expense of keeping out competitors may constantly increase the difficulty of providing better and cheaper service for the public. If, for instance, there is added to the annual expense of the company now operating in Detroit the buying-out of competing companies, how can this company employ its surplus earnings in increasing its service? The only way the public can make sure of getting any due share of the fruits of this victory is to take better care of the way it gives away its own franchises. Cities may, if they will, prearrange that the first result of any grants of franchises shall be the lowering of rates and the betterment of service. Unless this side of the matter is well guarded, the defeat of the Bell Company is not a public victory."—*The News, Detroit.*

Opportunity for Installation of Private Lines.—"It will be seen that at present all forms of telephone receivers and transmitters are free, and that on January 15 the valuable patent on the use of the induction coil with the transmitter will expire. As a consequence, private lines may be installed and operated under the most advantageous circumstances. The situation as to large exchange stations, however, is still much involved, and owing to the multiplicity of patents concerned and the scant knowledge on the subject of the requirements of exchanges outside of the Bell companies, it will be some time before it can be cleared up. It now seems that there would be much difficulty in economically operating any exchange of considerable size without the aid of switch-board and other devices covered by Bell patents. When, however, the difficulties to be overcome are clearly defined and understood the matter will come within the province of the inventor, and the conditions would have to be singular indeed if some method of meeting them could not be eventually devised."—*The Electrical World, New York.*

Women as Wage-Earners in the South.—In the South the view is still held quite widely that it is highly undesirable for a gentlewoman to engage in any industrial calling. The Georgia Assembly has recently defeated a resolution recommending that the Governor appoint a woman to the office of Assistant State Librarian. The objection was not on the score of women's fitness for such positions; it was rather that women are too noble and good to stoop to wage-earning. This sentiment was expressed most forcibly by an assemblyman named Harrison, who opposed the resolution "in the name of the mothers, sisters, and daughters of the South," and who protested against degrading the character of Southern women by withdrawing them from the home circle. *The Louisville Courier-Journal* is out of sympathy with this manifestation of Southern chivalry. Criticizing Mr. Harrison, it says: "It is about time that the lingering sentiment in the South against women working for themselves should lose its force. It is a relic of the 'Old South' which, however chivalric in its origin, cannot stand against the practical conditions of life which confront the women of the present. . . . The last fifteen years have done much to dispel the old Southern

ideal of women, along with other old dreams which are beautiful in romance and poetry, and would be beautiful in life if life were not such a practical thing. The Southern women cannot live upon men's dreams. Every day they are depending less upon possible husbands, stepping down from the pedestal upon which the 'Cavaliers' have placed them, and setting about earning for themselves the necessities and comforts of existence. Men like Harrison of Georgia mean well, but Harrison can provide for but one wife, and he has no right to say that the woman who has no husband to provide for her, or who does not want a husband to provide for her, shall not resort to any honorable employment she may choose for herself."

TOPICS IN BRIEF.

"THE American reporter has surprised John Burns, M.P., more than anything else in this country. It is safe to say that the feeling is mutual."—*The Herald, Boston.*

"JAPAN seems willing to shout for peace on earth, with a large indemnity."—*The World, New York.*

"SENATOR VOORHEES always makes a circus of himself when he begins to monkey with finance."—*The News, Indianapolis.*

"POLITICIAN :—'We've got to gain the vote of that old maids' club or all hope is lost.'"

"Candidate :—'That's all right. We'll just address a private circular to the different members, asking if they are old enough to vote, and stating if they will be able to cast a vote this election that we'd like to have it count for us.'"—*The Leader, Cleveland.*

"SECRETARY CARLISLE'S amateur Currency Reform Bill seems to have died of progressive paresis in its enacting clause."—*The Tribune, New York.*

"WHEN the man behind the bar makes tea for a Senator he winks and asks, 'With or without Havemeyer?'"—*The News, Galveston.*

"'NO,' said the college professor of literature, 'I haven't read a novel in five years. I am not very fond of scientific discussions or treatises on physiology and pathology.'"—*The Transcript, Boston.*

"SANTA CLAUS is impersonated by saloon-keepers for the New York police captains' benefit."—*Plain Dealer, Cleveland.*

"THE peculiar style of loquacity exhibited by John Burns, M.P., of London, should be subjected to a heavy import duty. And if the rate were prohibitory no harm would be done."—*The Democrat, Rochester.*

"A PARTICULARLY mean thief was that chap who stole the money from the collection-baskets of a Philadelphia church Sunday morning, after listening to a sermon on 'The love of money is the root of all evil.'"—*Chronicle-Telegraph, Pittsburg.*

"NEW YORK'S church tenements are said to be in a devilish bad condition."—*North American, Philadelphia.*

"THE last bell seems to have been rung on the Bell Telephone monopoly."—*The Item, Philadelphia.*

"THE visiting foreigner climbed carefully and painfully over the stacks of merchandise displayed on the sidewalk. 'We don't permit anything like this over home,' said he. 'Sir,' said his entertainer with pride, 'this is a free country!'"—*The Journal, Indianapolis.*

"JOHN BURNS'S visit was quite popular. His departure calls forth great demonstrations of gratitude."—*Plain Dealer, Cleveland.*

"THE Bell Telephone Company hopes to maintain its monopoly until telephone communication is established with Mars, when it will proceed to bleed the people of that planet."—*Commercial Advertiser, New York.*



JUDGE WOODS :—"You are guilty of purpresture."
HOWARD TO DEBS :—"Merciful heavens! Is it so bad as that? We are lost!"—*The Denver News.*

LETTERS AND ART.

SHAKESPEARE'S AMERICANISMS.

THE custom of English writers and speakers to designate certain modes of expression as "Americanisms" has led to retaliation from several sources. Brander Matthews was among the first to retaliate, by writing an article on "Briticisms," in which he half-humorously treated peculiarities of speech heard principally in London. Henry Cabot Lodge now comes to the rescue of "Americanisms" from ridicule, and cites no less an author than Shakespeare to verify his assertion that many of the words and phrases now common in America, and which are regarded by English critics as cis-Atlantic vulgarisms or local idiom, dialect, and jargon, had their origin in England and in "the Queen's English," and were introduced in America by the English emigrants who settled Virginia and New England.

Mr. Lodge's paper on this subject (*Harper's Magazine*, January) opens as follows:

"Much has been written first and last about certain English words and phrases which are commonly called 'Americanisms.' That they are so classified is due to our brethren of England, who seem to think that in this way they not only relieve themselves of all responsibility for the existence of these offending parts of speech, but that they also in some mysterious manner make them things apart and put them outside the pale of the English language. No one would be hard-hearted enough to grudge to our island kindred any comfort they may take in this mental operation, but that any one should cherish such a belief shows a curious ignorance, not merely as to many of the words in question, but as to the history and present standing of the language itself. To describe an English word or phrase as American or British or Australian or Indian or South African may be convenient if we wish to define that portion of the English-speaking people among whom it originated, or by whom it has been kept or revived from the usage of an earlier day. But it is worse than useless to do so if an attempt to exclude the word from English speech is thereby intended. It is no longer possible in any such fashion as this to set up arbitrary metes and bounds to the great language which has spread over the world with the march of the people who use it. The 'Queen's English' was a phrase correct enough in the days of Elizabeth or Anne, but it is an absurdity in those of Victoria. In the time of the last Tudor or the last Stuart every one whose native tongue was English could be properly set down as a subject of the English Queen. No such proposition is possible now. The English-speaking people who own no allegiance to England's Queen are to-day more numerous than those who do."

The writer then points out the impossibility of setting limits to the language or of establishing proprietorship to it in any given place, as might be done with Tuscan Italian, Castilian Spanish, or Parisian French, adding that no one has ever heard of "London English" in that sense. He further says: "A word used in the United States and not in England may be good or bad, but the mere fact that it is in use in one place and not in the other has no bearing as to either its goodness or the reverse." And this brings us to the pith of his article, to wit:

"To Virginia came many educated men, who became the planters, land-owners, and leaders of the infant State, and although they did little for nearly a century in behalf of general education, the sons of the governing class were either taught at home by English tutors or sent across the water to English colleges. In New England the average education among the first settlers was high, and they showed their love of learning by their immediate foundation of a college and of a public-school system. The Puritan leaders and their powerful clergy were, as a rule, college-bred men, with all the traditions of Oxford and Cambridge fresh in their minds and dear to their hearts. They would have been the last men to corrupt or abuse the mother-tongue, which they cherished more than ever in the new and distant land. The language which these people brought with them to Virginia and Massachusetts, moreover, was, as Mr. Lowell has remarked, the

language of Shakespeare, who lived and wrote and died just at the period when these countrymen of his were taking their way to the New World. In view of these latter-day criticisms it might seem as if these emigrants should have brought some other English with them than that of Shakespeare's England, but luckily or unluckily that was the only mode of speech they had. It followed very naturally that some of the words thus brought over the water, and then common to the English on both sides of the Atlantic, survived only in the New World, to which they were transplanted. This is not remarkable, but it is passing strange that words not only used in Shakespeare's time, but used by Shakespeare himself, should have lived to be disdainfully called 'Americanisms' by people now living in Shakespeare's own country. It is well, therefore, to look at a few of these words occasionally, if only to refresh our memories. No single example, perhaps, is new, but when we bring several into a little group they make a picturesque illustration of the futility of undertaking to shut out a word from good society because it is used in one place where English-speaking people dwell and not in another.

"What Mr. Bartlett in his dictionary of Americanisms calls justly one of 'the most marked peculiarities of American speech' is the constant use of the word 'well' as an interjection, especially at the beginning of sentences. Mr. Bartlett also says, 'Englishmen have told me that they could always detect an American by this use of the word.' Here perhaps is a clue to the true nationality of the Danish soldiers with Italian names and idiomatic English speech who appear in the first scene of *Hamlet*:

Bernardo. Have you had quiet guard?

Francisco. Not a mouse stirring.

Bernardo. Well, good-night.

"This is as excellent and precise an example of the every-day American use of the word 'well' as could possibly be found. The fact is that the use of 'well' as an interjection is so common in Shakespeare that Mrs. Clarke omits the word used in that capacity from her concordance, and explains its omission on the ground of its constant repetition, like 'come,' 'look,' 'marry,' and so on. Thus has it come to pass that an American betrays his nationality to an Englishman because he uses the word 'well' interjectionally, as Shakespeare used it. I have seen more than once patronizing criticisms of this peculiarity of American speech, but have never suffered at the sight, because I have always been able to take to myself the consolation of Lord Byron, that it is

'Better to err with Pope than shine with Pye.'

"Our English brethren, again, use the word 'ill' in speaking of a person 'afflicted with disease'—to take Johnson's definition of the word 'sick.' They restrict the word 'sick' to 'nausea,' and regard our employment of it, as applicable to any kind of disease, or to a person out of health from any cause, as an 'Americanism.' And yet this 'Americanism' "is Elizabethan and Shakespearian. For example, in *'Midsummer-Night's Dream'* (Act I., Scene I.), *Helena* says, 'Sickness is catching,' which is not the chief characteristic of the ailment to which modern English usage confines the word. In *'Cymbeline,'* again (Act V., Scene IV.), we find the phrase, 'one that's sick o' the gout.' Examples might be multiplied, for Shakespeare rarely uses the word 'ill,' but constantly the word 'sick' in the general sense. In the Bible the use of 'sick' is, I believe, unbroken. The marriage service says, 'in sickness and in health,' and Johnson's definition, as Mr. Bartlett points out, conforms to the usage of Chaucer, Milton, Dryden, and Cowper. Even the Englishman who starts with surprise at our general application of 'sick' and 'sickness,' and who is nothing if not logical, would not think of describing an officer of the army as absent on 'ill-leave' or as placed upon the 'ill-list.' The English restriction of the use of these two words is, in truth, wholly unwarranted, and should be given up in favor of the better and older American usage, which is that of all the highest standards of English literature.

"The conditions of traveling have changed so much during this century, and all the methods of travel are so new, that most of the words connected with it are of necessity new also either in form or application. In some cases the same phrases have come in both England and the United States. In others different words have been chosen by the two nations to express the same thing, and, so far as merit goes, there is little to choose between them. But there are a few words in this department which are as old as traveling itself, and which were as necessary in the days of the galley and the pack-horse as they are in those of the

steamship and the railroad. One of them is the comprehensive term for the things which travelers carry with them. Englishmen commonly use the word 'luggage;' we Americans the word 'baggage.' In this we agree with *Touchstone*, who, using a phrase which has become part of our daily speech, says (Act III., Scene II.), 'though not with bag and baggage, yet with scrip and scrippage.' *Leontes* also, in the 'Winter's Tale' (Act I., Scene II.), uses the same phrase as *Touchstone*. It may be argued that both allusions are drawn from military language, in which 'baggage' is always used. But this will not avail, for 'luggage' occurs twice at least in Shakespeare referring solely to the effects of an army. In 'Henry V.' (Act V., Scene I.) we find 'the luggage of our camp;' and *Fluellen* says, in the same play (Act IV., Scene VII.), 'Kill the poys and the luggage!' Shakespeare used both words indifferently in the same sense, and the 'Americanism' was as familiar to him as the 'Britishism.' . . .

"Among characteristic American words none is more so than 'to guess,' in the sense of 'to think.' The word is old and good, but the significance that we give it is charged against us as an innovation of our own, and wholly without warrant. One sees it continually in English comic papers, and in books also, put into the mouths of Americans as a discreditable but unmistakable badge of nationality. Shakespeare uses the word constantly, generally in the stricter and narrower sense where it implies conjecture. Yet he also uses it in the broader American sense of thinking. For example, in 'Measure for Measure' (Act IV., Scene IV.), *Angelo* says, 'And why meet him at the gates, and redeliver our authorities there?' To which *Escalus* replies, in a most emphatically American fashion, 'I guess not.' There is no questioning, no conjecture here. It is simply our common American form of 'I think not.' Again, in the 'Winter's Tale' (Act IV., Scene III.), *Camillo* says, 'Which, I do guess, you do not purpose to him.' This is the same use of the word in the sense of to think, and other instances might be added. In view of this it seems not a little curious that a bit of Shakespeare's English in the use of an excellent Saxon word should be selected above all others by Englishmen of the Nineteenth Century to brand an American, not merely with his nationality, but with the misuse of his mother-tongue. Be it said also in passing that 'guess' is a far better word than 'fancy,' which the British are fond of putting to a similar service. . . .

"In the soup,' to express defeat and disaster, is apparently very recent, and yet it is singularly like the language of *Pompey* in 'Measure for Measure' (Act III., Scene II.), when he says, 'Troth, sir, she hath eaten up all her beef, and she is herself in the tub.'

"Even more recent than 'in the soup' is the use of the word 'stuffed,' to denote contemptuously what may be most nearly described as large and ineffective pretentiousness. But in 'Much Ado about Nothing' (Act I., Scene I.) the *Messenger* says, 'A lord to a lord, a man to a man, stuffed with all honorable virtues.' To which *Beatrice* replies, 'It is so, indeed; he is no less than a stuffed man: but for the stuffing,—Well, we are all mortal.' Here *Beatrice* uses the phrase 'stuffed man' in contempt, catching up the word of the messenger.

"Flapjack,' perhaps, is hardly to be called slang, but it is certainly an American phrase for a griddle-cake. We must have brought it with us, however, from Shakespeare's England, for there it is in 'Pericles' (Act II., Scene I.), where the Grecian—very Grecian—fisherman says, 'Come, thou shalt go home, and we'll have flesh for holidays, fish for fasting days, and moreover puddings and flapjacks; and thou shalt be welcome.'

"I will close this little collection of Shakespeare's Americanisms with a word that is not slang, but the use of which in this country shows the tenacity with which our people have held to the Elizabethan phrases that their ancestors brought with them. In 'As You Like It' (Act I., Scene I.), *Charles the Wrestler* says, 'They say many young gentlemen flock to him every day, and fleet the time carelessly, as they did in the golden world.' 'Fleet,' as a verb in this sense of 'to pass' or 'to move' may yet survive in some parts of England, but it has certainly disappeared from the literature and the ordinary speech of both England and the United States. It is still in use, however, in this exact Shakespearean sense in the daily speech of people on the island of Nantucket, in the State of Massachusetts. I have heard it there frequently, and it is owing no doubt to the isolation of the inhabitants that it still lingers, as it does, an echo of the Elizabethan days, among American fishermen in the closing years of the Nineteenth Century."

A ROASTING FOR CABLE'S NEW NOVEL.

HAPPILY the time has gone by when writers lie down and give up the ghost because of severe adverse criticism of their work, else Mr. G. W. Cable might now be numbered with those who have fallen under the "savage and tartarly" stroke of the critic's pen. "John March, Southerner," Mr. Cable's latest story, just issued in book-form after having run serially in *Scribner's Magazine*, has been accepted by many readers as a very good piece of work—not equal to the author's earlier pieces of fiction, but marked throughout by his own peculiar grace and force. *The Tribune*, however, ridicules Mr. Cable's present performance unreservedly and unmercifully. We quote a part of the pasquinade:

"The marionette has many obvious advantages over the mere living human body. No matter of what it be made, or by whom, you may call it what you will, hero or villain, as suits the moment's purpose. If it be strongly made, of tough wood, with joints well hinged and oiled, it is capable of assuming a vast number of attitudes with astounding agility, according to the skill and energy of him who pulls the wires; and while some of these attitudes are almost human, others are immeasurably more unnatural than any man or woman, even a freak contortionist, could take. When, as in the case of Mr. Cable's new novel, a book is peopled with such figures, the advantages are increased a thousandfold. The botheration of a plot is dispensed with, and so are all the complications of the law of cause and effect. No two incidents need be in logical sequence, and are not; unless that a man becomes intoxicated after drinking a lot of whiskey, or dies after being shot through the heart. Such slight concessions to old-school prejudice even the novel of the marionette must make. The difficult and much-debated task of analysis is likewise done away with. It would be idle to dissect a broomstick, or to study the psychology of sawdust. Nor is there any danger, as sometimes happens in great books, that the virile, sympathetic characters may carry the dramatic train of action along with a resistless rush, the author himself helpless before the literary Frankenstein. The puppets are always the obedient servants of their creator, responding to his slightest touch upon the wires, but silent and still as death when his hands are busy elsewhere.

"One feels some curiosity to see which way the puppets will jump next, no one movement affording the slightest ground for prediction as to what the next will be; and some surprise at the jump when it actually occurs. But why should we say surprise—for when nothing but the unexpected ever can happen, why should we be surprised at the unexpected? Thus when John March, at the mature age of eight, thoughtfully observes, 'I shall never marry,' there is no occasion to be startled, nor to feel other than a mild wonderment why he did not instead declare that 'brass is made of tin and copper.' Later on, at a time when he is called a man, with all the deliberation of knowledge and all the fervor of conviction he brands Major Garnet a scoundrel and invites him to a fight to the death; and a few moments later becomes as maudlin as a marionette can be in his manifestations of love and esteem for him. Still later, knowing Garnet to be a knave and Ravenel a drunken blackguard, he implicitly intrusts to them his fortune and his fame. This is not because he is labeled as having had for a father a foolish sentimentalist, and for a mother a sentimental fool, but just because he is a marionette. Why should he be consistent? 'It would be funny,' says Fannie Halliday, in one place, 'if such a day as this should end in John March's getting religion, wouldn't it?' No, fair Miss Fannie, it wouldn't. Granting for the sake of avoiding argument that there is ever anything particularly humorous in 'getting religion,' it cannot be granted, even for such sake, that any act of John March's might, could, would or should be funny or surprising; no, not even though he should for one brief moment act like a rational man. . . .

"Never by any chance does one of the characters in this book in the remotest degree appeal to human sympathy or human passion. Never for one moment are we allowed to forget that they are not creatures of flesh and blood, but merely wooden puppets and sawdust dolls, hung on a string and manipulated at will by the show-master behind the scenes. They bob and gesture, grimace and squeak; and they are called by names such as god-

fathers and godmothers bestow upon infants at their christening. But lifeless puppets they are, and such they must remain. Mr. Cable has done excellent literary work in his time, and the judicious must grieve to note the irremediable weakness of this book."

MURDEROUS LITERATURE.

IN the pocket of a recent suicide in New York was found a newspaper containing an article justifying self-murder. How many crimes have been instigated by books we cannot know, but unhappily their probable number is not small. In an article in the *Revue Bleue*, Paris, December 8, giving advice to young writers, M. Eugène Mouton touches on this phase of literature in a passage of which we subjoin a translation:

"What all the good books in the world cannot do to make a man wise, one bad book will do to make him mad. It is a horrible thing, but the more violent, reckless, and ferocious the book, the more will a mind that has not lived long enough to tell good from evil be carried by it to madness and crime.

"We see this clearly in this age of horrors. It is not the old who blow up houses and kill men; it is the young—almost the children. The old, more prudent and more wise, content themselves with exciting these to crime and bringing them to the scaffold.

"Alas! what is true of these instigators is true of every writer who, be it by one single line, by a word from his lips, has caused misfortune, folly, or the murder or suicide of a single man. He is not an accomplice; he is the criminal himself. And when he is brought to judgment I defy his defender to plead in his behalf that he has not addressed his instigation to a particular individual, but has thrown it out at hazard for all those who might be disposed to follow it. . . . We have not to do here with these vague prophecies that are thrown out in perorations to make a debate interesting; these are facts.

"Every manifestation of an evil makes that evil contagious, and the greater the evil the more contagious it is. There is a well-known case of a hospital, where an inmate having committed suicide during the night, five others killed themselves successively in the same manner and at the same hour. The contagion of a book is not less dangerous than that of example.

"Apropos of instigation to suicide, M. J. Pourdeau cited recently in the *Journal des Débats* the case of a young German named Mainloeder who having, to his misfortune, picked up one of the pessimistic works of Schopenhauer, tried at first to drown himself, and then, being rescued, wrote a book on 'The Philosophy of Redemption,' after which he succeeded in killing himself.

"M. Bourdeau recalls in this connection the suicides suggested by the reading of 'Werther.' Goethe acknowledged that 'Werther' was 'an incendiary match;' he would not himself read it over for fear of falling into the abnormal state from which this book of his youth had issued, but he justified himself in the following terms for the ills that he had occasioned. 'You condemn a work,' he cried, 'which, badly understood by a few narrow minds, has rid the world of a dozen crazy-heads and good-for-nothings who could not have done better than to extinguish once for all the poor remnant of their intellectual light. I think I have rendered humanity a real service and have merited its thanks, and you impute to me as a crime this fortunate little feat of arms.'

"This is to congratulate one's self gaily on a dozen murders, and be sure that when the miserable man said this, he felt himself swelling with pride in his homicidal power, like the coquette who has caused one of her lovers to die of grief.

"But when we have choked down the rage that rises at reading such infamous sentiments, we perceive to what a point the vanity of writing can carry an honorable man. Of the same egotism and pride of which she makes scoundrels, literature makes a kind of intellectual monster, incapable of distinguishing between good and evil when what they call their glory is at stake.

"One cannot help regretting that 'the crazy heads and good-for-nothings' who are good only to drive others to crime or suicide do not begin by getting themselves executed for murder or hanging themselves as soon as possible to the nearest lamp-post. One or two do so, now and then, but so few!"—Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.

SYMONDS AS AN INTERPRETER OF ITALY.

IN a highly pleasing paper on the life and literary work of John Addington Symonds in *The New World* (Quarterly), December, Mr. Frank Sewall touches, by way of preliminary, upon a subject that is exceedingly interesting, namely, the peculiar fascination that the climate and the scenes of Italy possess for littérateurs. We often wonder at the spell of enchantment that drew and held such men as Shelley, Byron, Keats, Landor, Browning, Ruskin, and many others in every branch of art. On this point Mr. Sewall says:

"With Browning and Ruskin, Symonds has formed a third in a triad of writers who have filled a unique place in English letters, that of interpreters to the Anglo-Saxon mind of the life, the art, and the literature of Italy. The large part that Italy has played in the culture of the English mind suggests the inquiry whether there be not something complementary in the race qualities of the two peoples that may account for their combination in almost every phase of the English intellectual life.

"Since those early days when Chaucer sang of the Springtime desire to 'gon on pilgrimages' something has seemed to impel the Englishman to seek foreign skies, and none have had for him the same attraction as those of Italy. Shelley, Keats, and Byron breathed there an atmosphere that was wanting in the beclouded island of green fields and hedges. It may be questioned whether the famous beauty of the Italian skies does not owe its celebrity more to the contrast these skies presented to those of the Englishman's home in the days when he first began to travel abroad, than to any atmospheric advantage they possess over the skies of other lands than England. The soft airs and dreamy, luxurious languor of the southern land supplied a need peculiarly felt by the restless energy which characterizes the Anglo-Saxon nature. This need exists equally in the mental constitution. For a large part of our heritage in English literature we are indebted to the charm exerted by these Italian skies. When the sojourn to which they invited was not a bodily one, as in Chaucer's case, but a mental residence, as in Shakespeare's, it seems hardly less real. From Boccaccio, Petrarch, and Dante, a color and brightness and grace came into English letters that could have been derived from no other source; no other mind has shown the readiness of the English for absorbing these qualities. Venice and Verona and even the Rome of the Cæsars live as vividly in the pages of Shakespeare as in the vision of the tourist of to-day; with Italy left out, not only the subject-matter but the whole tone of our modern English literature must have been essentially different from what they now are.

"This search for what is wanting in the northern race-character cannot be classed as a cosmopolitan trait in the Englishman. The English writers who, like the three first-named above, have spent the larger part of their literary lives abroad, although they have lived in many lands, have found little to write on outside of Italy. England possesses no considerable body of criticism treating of the distinctive art life of France, Germany, Spain, or Russia. Carlyle entered with a literary spirit into the study of German letters and philosophy and the political aspects of the times of Frederick and Napoleon. Gibbon and Hallam have produced their monumental reviews of the growth of European states and letters; but the works of these writers exhibit rather the laborious execution of a self-imposed task than the thrill of delight in spontaneous expression. Italy, on the other hand, has exercised that peculiar charm attributed to the waters of Trevi's fountain—once tasted, they allow the pilgrim no rest until he returns to drink again. It is not so much to a migratory habit of mind, therefore, that the Englishman's love of Italy is due, as to the



JOHN ADDINGTON SYMONDS.

peculiar hunger of the Teutonic nature for elements which belong to the Hellenic races of the South, and which have borne their richest fruits in the Italy of the classic and medieval periods. His longing found utterance often in the poems of Wordsworth and Keats; siren-like it drew Shelley to the fatal shores of Spezzia, and it has filled volumes of recent English criticism with the minutest accounts of Italian life, art, and letters, until the cracks and stains in the marbles of Venice and the cloisters and shrines of Rome and Florence, not to speak of the events that lie behind these, are more familiar to many an Englishman to-day than they are to the natives themselves."

Mr. Sewall's article is a very sympathetic one, following the course and estimating the literary work of its subject with appreciative insight. He declares the genius and real merit of Mr. Symonds to be conspicuous, "despite all that his critics say," and avers that he combines, as few writers have done, the functions of the historian, the critic, and the poet, and that he affords an almost unique example of effort to embrace the revolutionary theories and methods of modern science without breaking with the esthetic and ideal traditions of the past. Of Mr. Symonds as a poet, the writer says:

"Symonds cannot be said to have reached the rank of poet, to which he aspired, if we confine poetry to the art of verifying; but of the higher mission of poetry, the imparting of form and beauty and human interest to the crude materials and fragments of knowledge, whether of history, science, or art, which lacked these in their isolation, few modern writers afford so happy an example. As a verse-writer his achievements are indeed far from inconsiderable. His fine sense of form and melody enabled him to present with a large measure of their original beauty the voluminous extracts from classical and Italian poets which his works contain. He has been the chief interpreter to English readers of the sonnets of Michel Angelo, and in treating these he reveals his own susceptibility to the magic spell of that most subtle and most powerful of all poetic forms.

"Symonds in his own sonnets opens to the reader the book of his own heart. What his verses lack in the universality which betokens the great poet, they gain in the interest attaching to the writer's own life and moods. In this they violate the rules set upon his dissertation on the sonnet as a poetic form: 'The true sonnet should not embrace accurate self-delineation. It is a poem expressing impressional thought in forms borrowed from personal experience. It is a meditative lyric, in whose peculiar stanza particular emotion takes the character of generality.' He claims that the English sonnet is not an exotic, but acclimatized and in accord with English genius. 'It has a monumental character possessed by no other form of verse.' Their failure 'to put on the form of generality' constitutes the obvious shortcoming in Symonds's sonnets. They remain the expression of the personal emotion which prompted them, and not of the broader heart of humanity which seems to find utterance in the sonnets of the great masters."

The following sonnet by Symonds, depicting the struggle between sensuous passion and pure spiritual love of the good and the beautiful, is quoted by Mr. Sewall:

EROS AND ANTEROS.

'Tis self whereby we suffer; 'tis the greed
To grasp, the hunger to assimilate
All that Earth holds of fair and delicate,
The best to blend with beauteous lives, to feed
And take our fill of loveliness, which breed
This anguish of the soul intemperate;
'Tis self that turns to harm and poisonous hate
The calm, clear life of love that angels lead.
Oh, that 't were possible this self to burn
In the pure flame of joy contemplative;
Then might we love all loveliness nor yearn
With tyrannous longings; undisturbed might live
Greeting the Summer's and the Spring's return,
Nor wailing that their bloom is fugitive.

In conclusion, Mr. Sewall cites a passage in the chapter on "The Cornice," in "Sketches and Studies," descriptive of the impressions caused by the scenery and life of an old Ligurian roadside, as "a reflection in miniature of Symonds's whole life." The passage is this, with interpolations by Mr. Sewall:

"Everything fits in to complete the reproduction of Greek pas-

toral life. The goats eat cytissus and myrtle on the shore: the narcissus, anemone and hyacinth still tell their tales of love and death. Hesper still gazes on the shepherd from the mountain head; Pan sleeps in the noontide heat; little villages high up are just as white, the mountains just as gray and shadowy when evening falls. Nothing is changed—except ourselves." He comes upon a 'tiny white chapel in the corner of an enclosure, where everything basked in sunlight and glittered with exceeding brilliancy of hue.' Two iron grated windows revealed a bare floor, a wooden praying desk, black and worm-eaten, and an altar with candles but no flowers, and above the altar a square picture brown with age. 'As my sight became accustomed to the gloom, I could see from the darkness of the picture a pale Christ nailed to the cross, with agonizing upward eyes and ashy aureole above the bleeding thorns. . . . Thus I stepped suddenly away from the outward pomp and bravery of nature to the inward aspirations, agonies and martyrdoms of man,—from Greek legends of the past to the real Christian present,—and I remembered that an illimitable prospect has been opened to the world, that in spite of ourselves we must turn our eyes heavenward, inward, to the infinite unseen, beyond us and within our soul. Nothing can take us back to Phœbus and to Pan. Nothing can again identify us with the simple natural earth.'"

TOLSTOI'S ESTIMATE OF MAUPASSANT.

OF Guy de Maupassant, whose insanity and death are still fresh in the public mind, Count Tolstoi says that he was the writer of "the best French novel after Hugo's 'Les Misérables,'" but that all his other novels are weak and but indications of a brilliant gift ruined by false surroundings and false theories of art. This very high praise and this very severe criticism occurs in an article in *The Arena*, December. The Count narrates how his attention was called to Maupassant by Turgenief, who told also "some wonderful, almost incredible, stories" of Maupassant's "relations with the fair sex," though what they were we are not told. The book to which the Count's attention was first called was "Maison Tellier," which, we are told, showed that its author possessed a true talent, the talent of concentration and insight, yet which indicates a lack of "the chiefest of the three qualities necessary for the production of a true work of art." Tolstoi continues as follows:

"These three conditions are: a true, moral attitude toward his subject; clear expression, or, what is the same thing, beauty of form; and thirdly, sincerity—unfeigned love or unfeigned hatred for what he depicts.

"Of these three conditions, Guy de Maupassant possessed the last two only, and was utterly devoid of the first. He had no true, no moral attitude toward his subject. From what I had read, I decided that Guy de Maupassant possessed this talent: that he could intend his mind on things, and thus discern qualities unseen by others; that he also possessed beauty of form—he could say clearly, simply, and beautifully whatever he had to say; that he also possessed the indispensable condition of effectiveness—sincerity. He did not feign love and hatred. He loved and hated sincerely. But, unhappily lacking the first, the chiefest condition of true work—the right moral attitude, the discernment between good and evil—he loved and painted things that are not worthy of love; and did not love or paint things that are worthy of love."

Tolstoi proceeds to criticize Maupassant's different books one by one, finding fault with his moral attitude toward his own creations as manifested in all the books excepting "Une Vie" alone, to which he applies the words quoted in our first sentence. Of this book he says:

"The contents of the book, as its title shows, comprehend 'A Life,' a life, innocent, and ruined; a gracious woman ever open to all good influences, but brought to utter ruin by the very grossness of animal instincts which, in former days, were, in the opinion of the author, the central, dominant facts of life. But in this book, all the sympathies of the author are on the side of what is really good.

"The style of his first stories is also excellent, but here it

reaches such heights of perfection as have never, in my opinion, been reached by any writer of French prose. But, best of all, the author truly and sincerely loves the kindly family he describes, and really hates the coarse sensualist who destroys its happiness and peace. And this sincerity is the root of that vividness which pervades the whole work. . . .

"The motive in 'Une Vie' is this: Here is a human being, kindly, bright, sympathetic, open to all good influences; and, for some reason, this human being is sacrificed first to her vulgar, worthless, stupid, sensual husband, and then to her son who is no better. Why is this being led to ruin without ever having given anything to the world? This is the question Guy de Maupassant puts, and, to all appearances, he leaves it unanswered. But the whole story, all our compassion for the victim, all our abhorrence for the causes of her ruin, are an answer to this question. If even one man could enter into, and express, her sorrows, they are justified. Such was the meaning of Job's answer to his friends, who said that none would understand his sorrow. You have learned suffering and understood it: this is its justification. And the author has seen and understood this suffering, and has unveiled its mysteries to others. The suffering is justified by the fact that, once it has been understood by mankind, its source will be inevitably removed, sooner or later."

Tolstoi then proceeds to pay his respects to the school of French writers to whom Maupassant belonged, in these words:

"Guy de Maupassant grew up and formed himself among those who believed that feminine beauty and feminine passion were finally and universally acknowledged by the best minds as the only true subject of real art. This theory, in all its terrible inanity, enslaved Guy de Maupassant as soon as he became a fashionable writer; and, as could have been foretold, this false ideal led him into a whole series of mistakes, in work that grew steadily weaker and weaker.

"And here we come to the radical difference between a novel and a short story. The theme of a novel, interior and exterior, is the description of a whole life, or even many lives; hence the writer of a novel must clearly discern between good and evil in life—a discernment which Guy de Maupassant never possessed. Quite the opposite, for it was blazoned on the banner of his school that he must ignore this very discernment. Had he been one of the throng of talentless prophets of sensuality, he would have depicted evil as good in perfect contentment, and his novels would have been complete and interesting for readers who shared his views. But Guy de Maupassant was not talentless; he had the true talent—the power of discerning reality—and therefore, in spite of himself, depicted reality, and saw evil in what he tried to depict as good. And this is why in all his novels but 'Une Vie' his sympathies are so uncertain; sometimes depicting evil as good; sometimes seeing evil in evil, and good in good; and continually changing from one to the other. And this uncertainty is fatal to the wholeness of impression, fatal to the illusion.

"With the exception of his early novels, or, to speak more exactly, with the exception of his earliest one, all his novels are weak as such; and, had he left us nothing but his novels, his life would be valuable only as a striking example of a brilliant gift ruined by the false surroundings in which it developed, and the false theories of men without love for, and therefore without understanding of, art.

"But, happily, Guy de Maupassant wrote short stories also, in which he did not comply with a false theory; in which he did not aim at fine writing, but simply recorded what touched his heart or repelled his moral sense. And so, in the best of these short stories, you can trace the development of his moral sense, and the gradual and unconscious dethronement of all that formerly constituted for him the whole aim and meaning of life. And the wonderful characteristic of all true talent is that, unless the author does violence to his own better nature, a true talent will teach its possessor and lead him on the road of moral unfolding, making him love the truly lovable, and hate what is worthy of hatred. . . .

"The tragedy of his life is in the fact that though plunged in a life and tide of moral chaos, the power and luminousness of his talent was making for his liberation from this chaos; his release was definitely sure; he was already breathing the free air. Yet, having spent his strength in the struggle, he failed in the last needed effort, and perished unreleased.

"According to the thought that surrounded him, in which the

young lust of his passionate nature strengthened and confirmed, life was for indulgence alone, and the chiefest indulgence was sexual love; and this false tendency gained force and color from his wonderful power of depicting passion and communicating it to others.

"But the more he bent his eyes on this indulgence, the more there struggled to the light elements foreign and hostile to passion and beauty; woman grew strangely repellent; then the pains of pregnancy, of childbirth; the unwelcome children; then deceit, cruelty, moral suffering; then—old age, and—death. Then again—is this 'beauty' real beauty? Of what use is it? This ideal of his might hold, if we could bind the wings of time; but life hurries on,—and what does this mean? The hurry of life means this—thin and grizzled hair, toothlessness, wrinkles, tainted breath; even long before the end all becomes ugly and repellent; visible paint, sweat, foulness, hideousness. Where, then, is the god of my idolatry? Where is beauty? Beauty is all, and is—vanished. Nothing is left. Life is gone. Nor is it only that life has gone from where you beheld it. You yourself begin to lag behind. You yourself grow weak, dull, decrepit. Others cull the sweets before your eyes.

"And even this is not all. You begin to see the glimmer of another life; something different; another communion with life, and with mankind; a communion with no place for these deceits; a communion not to be destroyed, but ever true and ever beautiful. But this may not be. It is but the gleam of an oasis, where we know no oasis is, but sand only. Guy de Maupassant has reached the tragic hour of struggle between the lies around him, and the truth he was beginning to see. The throes of the new birth were close at hand. And these throes are expressed in his most excellent works, and more than all in his short stories. Had he not been doomed to death in the birth-struggle, he would have given us great evangels; yet even what he gave us in his pain is much already. Therefore let us thank this strong, truthful writer for what he has given."

NOTES.

"TRILBY" is not the first book of that name. In 1822 Charles Nodder, afterward a member of the French Academy, published in Paris a fairy story entitled "Trilby; or, the Fay of Argyle."

THE death is announced at Bournemouth, England, of the Rev. Solomon César Malan, one of the greatest linguists of the age. In addition to French, German, Latin, Spanish, Italian, and Greek, he was master of Hebrew, Sanskrit, Chinese, Armenian, Coptic, Syriac, Ethiopic, Sahidic, Memphitic, Gothic, Georgian, Slavonic, Arabic, Persian, Tibetan, Japanese, Anglo-Saxon, Welsh, and many other languages. His last work, completed just before his death, "Original Notes on the Book of Proverbs," contains nearly 16,000 illustrative quotations culled from the Eastern Fathers. In the Bodleian Library at Oxford is a volume containing a psalm written by him in more than eighty languages. He was the son of Dr. César Malan, of Geneva, and was born in 1812.

WHO that has followed, year after year, the prodigious inventions of M. Jules Verne could have conceived it possible that he should live to see a dull story by M. Verne? Yet that is what we have in "Claudius Bombarnac." The author of "Round the World in Eighty Days" was once a magician. Now, it would seem, he has broken his wand, destroyed the insignia of his art, and clothed himself with dulness as with a garment. He has even absorbed something of the New Humour, and a melancholy thing it is in its Gallicized dress.—*The Saturday Review, London.*

THE love of work, which was one of the characteristics of the historian Froude, is well illustrated in a story told of his last illness. The cancerous affection, of which he afterward died, was slowly destroying his healthy and vigorous frame. At one time he seemed to be much better, and when the physician came to see him he noted the improvement, and told his patient of it. Froude asked whether it was likely he would be able to go back to his work again. On hearing that this was impossible, he said: "If that is the case, I do not wish to live."

B. L. FARJEON, the novelist, attributes all the good fortune which has been his to the luck-giving New Zealand greenstone which he has carried for years on his watch-chain. Although from his earliest days he has been a bibliomaniac, Mr. Farjeon prefers to write at one end of his dining-room table, avoiding the seclusion of a library. He is an inveterate smoker, and regards a good cigar as a source of inspiration and a powerful aid to the imagination. He swears by the typewriter, and is much addicted to ice-water.

AT a recent sale in London the subjoined prices were paid for the books named: First edition of "Pickwick," with the suppressed plates, original wrappers, etc., £20; "Master Humphrey's Clock," in numbers, a parcel, £10; the works of Norman Gale, sold in one lot, £2; first edition of Charles Lever's "Tales of the Trains," woodcuts by "Phiz," £7 5s.; first edition of Thackeray's "Vanity Fair," with the woodcut of the Marquis of Steyne, which was suppressed after the issue of a few copies, £18 5s.; Tennyson's Poems, by Two Brothers, first edition, £14; Milton's "Paradise Lost," first edition, £12 10s.; Boydell's "Shakespeare," proofs before letters, a unique copy from Miss Boydell's library, £73 10s.

SCIENCE.

DEPARTMENT EDITOR, - - - ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK, PH.D.

THE FUTURE OF THE EARTH AND OF MAN.

THE end which science now predicts for the globe which we inhabit has given rise to many gloomy reflections. A French writer, M. Stanislas Meunier, however, has some comforting words in a lecture lately delivered in France and published in the *Revue Pédagogique*, Paris. After explaining, with some detail, the now generally accepted theory that, long before the Earth has lost all its original heat, its solid portions will have absorbed all its oceans and the whole of its atmosphere, M. Meunier proceeds in the words we here give:

"One of the most immediate effects of the progress of sidereal evolution is the impoverishment of the fluid reservoirs that surround the planets. Such a discovery is, of course, very threatening for us, and it may be asked whether our oceans and our atmosphere are rich enough to answer the needs of the rocks that will consolidate hereafter. It is easy to make a calculation on this point. The crust of the Earth is at present so thin that a hen's egg has relatively thicker walls than our globe. If we suppose the consolidation pushed to its center, such a consolidation would require many times the amount of water which all our seas can furnish. Our satellite, the Moon, which, by reason of its smaller volume, has reached the advanced degrees of refrigeration much more quickly than the Earth, is now precisely at that phase in which all that was absorbable is engulfed in the voids of its crust.

"The day will come, then, when the Earth, after having lost its atmosphere and its oceans, after having had enormous rifts opened all over its surface, will be broken up into meteoric fragments.

"Long before this time, all living beings, and especially human beings, deprived of the conditions necessary for existence, will have been extinguished.

"Let me note, moreover, that as the law of sidereal evolution is equally applicable to the Sun, there will come a time when that radiant star will cease to vivify the planets. If they shall not already have been broken into pieces, they will become, by the extinction of the heat of the Sun, unfit to be the dwelling-place of living beings.

"A distinguished professor whom science lost prematurely, M. Trouessart, whose mind had been much occupied with these questions, explained thus the future which awaits us, and at the same time made known his own preferences among the possible different destinies of the human race. 'Some day,' he said, 'that brilliant torch which is for us the source of light, of heat, of movement, and of life, will be extinguished, and we poor mortals (for how can we be indifferent to the destiny of our posterity?)—what will become of us? After dragging out the remnant of a *dying life*; after leading the sad existence of the Laps, the Esquimaux, the Samocides; after having retraced all the steps of our development, physical, intellectual, and moral, we shall end with exhaustion, misery, hunger, and cold! A thousand times better for the Earth to close its career with a mighty catastrophe, which would make an end of human beings while in full civilization, which would permit humanity to say to the universe which was crushing it, to use the fine expression of Pascal, that it is *nobler than the universe*; yes, anything rather than such a miserable end, in which thought itself will doubtless be extinguished before the wretched remains of the material life! Yet such a catastrophe science does not foresee, while it foresees the extinction of the Sun.'

"It must be observed, however, that, if the end which was so repugnant to Trouessart really awaits the human race, it is simply a proof that the law which governs space is precisely the same as the law which governs the individual. Why then should this law, applied to space, cause us so much horror, when, applied to the individual, it seems to us so natural? If the spectacle of a man who, laden with years, descends by a retrograde movement from what he was in his prime, does not cause us despair, it is because we know that this retrogression is but apparent and momentary, that it touches only secondary, transitory, exterior elements, the alteration in which is an illusion if we think it obscures that which in man is man himself; and that the latter,

transferred by death to another existence, will recover all the strength he had at the highest point of his previous life, and be a starting-point for a still higher life. Have we not the same grounds of comfort in all that concerns humanity in general? A transitory society of immortal beings, set to perform together a great terrestrial task, that of demonstrating in the physical and physiological order of things the supremacy of the spirit; if humanity be dissolved when this task is completed, it must be in order to be recomposed elsewhere, with a view to other destinies more sublime, with a view to new societies, since the associates are not annihilated.

"I do not then share the disquiet so eloquently expressed by Trouessart. His repugnance does not appear to me well grounded. Suppose humanity to be some day relieved at the post which is confided to it here below, is not such a thing essential? For, if its destiny were forever bound up with that of the Earth, and our planet has now reached, as some pretend, a state of immovable stability, man's progress in science and power would be limited to what could be required and exercised here, to this insignificant point of space without bounds to which we are at present confined!

"The theory of sidereal evolution dissipates this sad perspective. Since we have the certainty that neither the reason nor the sense nor the heart which has been bestowed on us is an illusion, let us also have confidence that the reality which is before humanity is worth far more than all that we, in our profound ignorance, can conceive of as the best."—*Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

GREATEST SCIENTIFIC EVENT OF THE YEAR JUST PAST.

IT will be remembered that at the recent meeting of the British Association Lord Rayleigh announced the discovery of a new gaseous element in the atmosphere, and that after the first surprise had died away doubts began to be thrown on the truth of the discovery, though of course not on the good faith of the investigators. Some considered that the supposed element was merely an impurity; others that the observations thought to establish its existence were defective; still others admitted that an allotropic form of nitrogen might have been found, but not a new gas. No less an authority, however, than Lord Kelvin (Sir William Thomson) in his anniversary address to the Royal Society, whose president he is, apparently freely accepts the discovery. In his address as reported in *Nature*, London, December 6, he speaks as follows:

"The greatest scientific event of the past year is, to my mind, undoubtedly the discovery of a new constituent of our atmosphere. . . . The investigation of the new gas is now being carried on vigorously and has already led to the wonderful conclusion that the new gas does not combine with any other chemical substance which has hitherto been presented to it. We all wait with impatience for further results of their work; we wish success to it, and we hope that it will give us, before the next anniversary meeting of the Royal Society, much knowledge, both physical and chemical, of the hitherto unknown and still anonymous fifth constituent of our atmosphere."

In commenting on Lord Kelvin's address, *The British Medical Journal*, which has been one of the skeptics from the very beginning, speaks in its issue of December 15 as follows:

"Now that more than three months have elapsed since that statement was made at the meeting of the British Association in Oxford, surprise will be felt that nothing definite should yet be known. At the meeting of the Chemical Society on December 6 the President called upon the assembled chemists to discuss this question, and he called in vain, but Professor Wanklyn placed on record immediately after the meeting of the British Association an explanation of the supposed discovery. According to this, the gas which has given rise to the curious results obtained by Lord Rayleigh is nitrous oxid. It is about one and a half times as heavy as nitrogen, and therefore traces of it would slightly increase the specific gravity of nitrogen. It is by no means impossible that the atmosphere contains traces of this gas."

LOCATING BULLETS AND DETECTING COUNTERFEITS BY ELECTRICITY.

THE accepted fact that no movement or disturbance in the universe can be purely local, that if one part moves the whole must thrill to infinite distances, is specially true of electrical disturbances. We have learned now that every such disturbance sends out waves on all sides. When these encounter conducting substances they set up in them other disturbances. This action, which was known long before its cause was understood, has been named *induction*, and its applications are manifold. In *Electricity*, December 10, Nelson W. Perry tells of one of them—the induction balance—which has been made possible by the invention of the telephone. Says Mr. Perry:

"Unlike most other instruments of great delicacy, the telephone is nearly as effective in the hands of a novice as it is in the hands of the trained expert, and now that it can be purchased outright for a small sum, or can be made at even still less cost by any one

possessed of the slightest mechanical skill, any of my readers can construct for themselves the instruments to be described in this article.

"If we pass an interrupted or variable current through a flat coil of wire and bring near to it another similar coil in whose circuit a telephone receiver is connected, and place the latter to

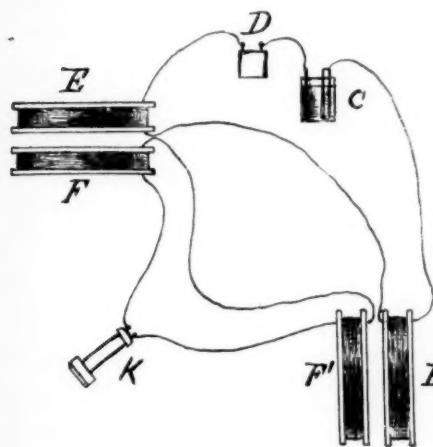


FIG. 1.

the ear, every variation of the current in the first circuit will induce a slight current in the second coil, and this affecting the telephone the latter will respond with a slight click or other noise. This second or induced current is due to the etheric waves sent out into space by the variable current in the first coil coming in contact with the wires of the second coil.

"If the coils F and F' (Fig. 1) are wound so as to have currents induced in them in the same direction, the noise in the telephone will be intensified. If they are wound so that the currents are opposed to each other, the current which will flow through the telephone will be less, or equal to the difference between the two. If all four coils are exactly equal and the spaces between the two pairs are also equal but the coils F and F' are so wound as to have currents induced in them in the opposite directions, the effects on one will exactly neutralize the effects on the other, and no matter how great the waves sent out from E and E' there will be no current in the second circuit and the telephone K will be silent. That is because the induction in one direction of E on F is exactly balanced by the induction in the opposite direction of E' on F'. This arrangement is therefore called an 'induction balance' and corresponds very closely to an exceedingly delicate analytical balance, such as is used by the chemists. The telephone will only be silent when the induction effects between the two pairs of coils are exactly equal. An apparently very trifling difference in either of the pairs of coils or their surroundings will destroy this equilibrium and the telephone will respond again, and it is by this response of the telephone that these slight changes in the surroundings are detected."

After describing some of the details of the apparatus Mr. Perry goes on to say:

"This balance is wonderfully unstable, since the slightest change in the surroundings of one pair of coils which does not take place around the other pair also will destroy it and the ticking will become audible again. If, for instance, one pair be hotter or colder than the other by even a slight change of temperature, the ticking will reappear in the telephone. The induction balance then affords a most delicate means of comparing the tem-

peratures of two bodies or of two parts of the same body. Or if a piece of metal or other conductor of electricity be brought near one pair of coils, it will throw the system out of balance and the ticking can be heard again. If a leaden bullet should be brought within say an inch or two of E' the telephone would respond. But if now another similar bullet be brought into exactly the same position relative to E, the disturbance caused by the first bullet by its proximity to E' will be exactly counterbalanced by the disturbance caused by the second bullet in the same proximity to the coil E, and the telephone becomes mute. . . .

"This induction balance, which is due to Professor Hughes, has been used in various forms by surgeons as an electric probe to locate the position of a ball in the living body. To employ it for this purpose, one pair of the coils is moved about over that portion of the body nearest where the ball is supposed to be. As soon as the coils come near the bullet the telephone begins to respond and becomes loudest when directly over the projectile. Retaining these coils now in this position, another bullet of the same size as the one sought for is moved around in the vicinity of the other pair of coils until the telephone again becomes mute. The distance of the second ball from the second coils will therefore be the distance of the ball sought for beneath the exploring coils.

"It must be observed, however, that the exploring coil will indicate the proximity of any other piece of metal as well as that of the bullet sought for. It will not discriminate between the thing the surgeon has in mind and that which he has not, and a gold ring thoughtlessly left on the finger of the operator would in nine times out of ten be located instead of the bullet. This method of probing was tried on the body of the lamented Garfield without satisfactory results, but the very intelligent physicians in charge of the case forgot to remove the patient from the spring mattress and the brass bedstead upon which he was lying, and the electric sound indicated the bullet quite as positively in the big toe of the patient as in the right place. In fact, had the patient been taken out of bed and the test made on the bed-clothes the bullet could have been quite as definitely located. With this light on the subject the electric probe, which the sagacious and wise and intelligent doctors condemned as useless and misleading, rises up in condemnation of their own criminal ignorance and malpractice, to which probably as much as to Guiteau's bullet was due the nation's mourning.

"This device has also been used as a submarine finder by lowering one pair of coils to the bottom of the sea and trailing it around. The presence of torpedoes or other metallic bodies is in this way readily indicated. It has even been proposed for use as a divining rod to locate ore bodies beneath the surface of the Earth, but as few of the metallic ores are good conductors of electricity, and those that are are usually so disseminated over large areas, the indications of the induction balance are in such cases apt to be more misleading than reliable.

"A very simple modification of the instrument just described adapts it to the detection of counterfeit coins in an infallible manner, and the construction is so simple that almost any one can make it. In fact it seems strange that some manufacturer has not already put such a detector upon the market at a price that would bring it within the reach of all. Such

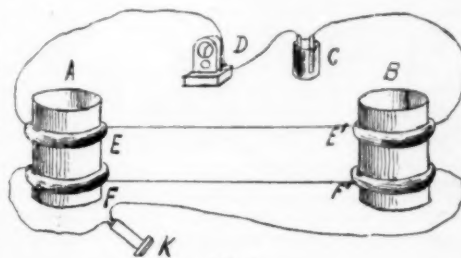


FIG. 2.

an instrument is shown in Fig. 2, and is identical with the one just described except that the two pairs of coils are wound not upon spools but upon gutta-percha or other non-conducting cylinders A and B. The different parts are lettered exactly as are the corresponding parts in Fig. 1. E E' are the two primary coils in the circuit in which are connected the battery C and the microphone D. F F' are the other two coils, called the secondary, and the system as before is balanced up by moving the coils E F nearer or further until the telephone K becomes mute.

"Now, if we place a silver coin in the cylinder B it will at once throw the system out of balance for the same reason that the proximity of the bullet did in the former arrangement. We bal-

ance the effect of this coin by putting an exactly similar one into the cylinder A. If, however, the second coin is not exactly similar to the first—if it be lighter or heavier in weight, if it be of purer or less pure material, if it be of an entirely different substance, the balance will not be complete. Thus a gold coin will not balance a silver coin of the same size, nor will a silver-plated coin or a light-weight coin balance a genuine one. Therefore, to detect a counterfeit or light-weight coin, it is only necessary to place one known to be genuine in one cylinder and the suspected one in the other and then apply the telephone to the ear. If the ticking of the clock can be heard distinctly, there is unquestionably something wrong.

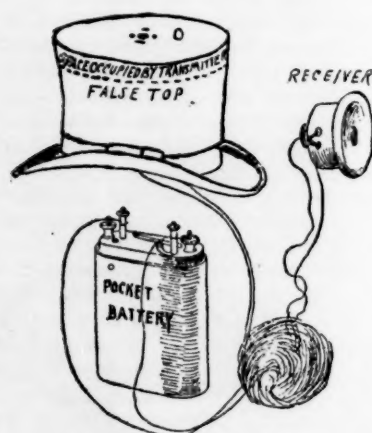
"The dimensions recommended for such an instrument are as follows: Each of the coils should have about 150 turns of wire and the two coils of each pair should be about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch apart. The cylinders should be large enough to hold the largest coin likely to be tested, or a trifle larger in diameter than a silver dollar. They need only be high enough to give room for the coils. The bottoms should be such that when the coin is lying down flat it will be equidistant from both coils, and this distance should be nearly the same in both cylinders.

"A balance thus constructed is so sensitive that different results are obtained even when the physical condition of the coin only is altered, as for instance by hammering."

A TELEPHONE IN A HAT—INGENIOUS DETECTIVE DEVICE.

AN ingenious device recently used by a Chicago lawyer to secure evidence in a case on which he was employed is described by *The Electrical Review*, New York, December 19. The point was to secure a confession from a man named Ioas that he had written a certain letter. In conversation with the plaintiff, Dr. Janss, he would occasionally admit the authorship, but never in the presence of witnesses. It was, therefore, decided to conceal a telephone on Dr. Janss's person, by means of which a third party at a distance could hear Ioas's confessions. *The Review* describes the plan adopted and its results as follows:

"After discussing the cuff-button, the necktie, and other parts of a man's attire as the best hiding-place for a transmitter, it was finally decided to conceal it in the crown of Dr. Janss's silk hat. The hat was provided with two crowns and the transmitter put between them. The outer crown had through it a few eyelet holes for admitting sound. A battery was arranged for the coat-pocket and this left only the wires and the receiver to be provided for.



THE HAT-TELEPHONE.

neck to the battery, and thence down his trousers leg to the heel of his shoe. When he next visited Ioas he was accompanied by Inspector Stuart and Detective Sandemeier. As he passed into the office Detective Sandemeier fastened the coil to the heel and unreeled the wire into a neighboring office. There Inspector Stuart connected it with the receiver and held the receiver to his ear. Ioas conducted Dr. Janss through several rooms, closing the doors as they passed, before he would talk. He did this without noticing the wire trailing at the doctor's heel. Then he talked long, loud and freely—right into the hat which Janss held in his lap—and boasted as before that he had written the letter. The conversation lasted an hour and Stuart took notes. As they came out Ioas discovered the wire, saw at once what was up, and immediately followed its course until he came to Stuart. But the inspector had already detached the receiver and looked innocent

and absent-minded. It is probable that if matters had gone no further Ioas would still have been safe, for no court has ever yet accepted a telephone as a witness. But Stuart afterward confronted Ioas and read from a paper all that he had said to Dr. Janss. Ioas broke down and confessed everything to the inspector. The result of this was that United States Commissioner Wirt held Ioas to the Grand Jury in bonds of \$1,500."

TO BRIDGE THE HUDSON WITH A SPAN OF 3,000 FEET.

IN the discussion, both in Congress and out of it, on the proposed bridge over the Hudson River, it is acknowledged by all that better communication between Manhattan Island and the New Jersey shore is absolutely necessary. A vast population, estimated at seventy millions a year, now crosses the river by ferry, and this trip is to many a vexatious delay, while to others it is an insurmountable obstacle to suburban life. The recent decision of the Secretary of War on the application of a company to bridge the Hudson at New York has called forth much comment. In an editorial on the subject *The Scientific American*, New York, December 22, has the following to say:

"The main point of the decision is that the Secretary forbids the construction of any bridge except one of single span.

"We have illustrated two plans of bridges proposed for the purpose in question. One, the great Lillendahl suspension bridge, was designed for a span of 2,920 feet, enough to go clear across the water. The other, a cantilever construction, with a maximum span of 2,020 feet, requires a pier in the stream. The latter feature the Secretary of War has decided to prohibit. This decision follows an exhaustive investigation of the subject made by a board of engineers appointed for the consideration of the question of the construction of the bridge.

"The reports state that a single span bridge of either of the above types is safe. The distance between bearings is put at 3,100 feet. A cantilever of this span would cost twice as much as the 2,000-foot one, while a suspension bridge of the larger span would cost but one third more than the smaller cantilever. A sum of \$23,000,000 is estimated as sufficient for a six-track suspension bridge. The gist of the decision is that it will be a suspension bridge or nothing.

"When we consider that for the above enormous sum of money six or seven tunnels could be built under the river-bed, which would be superior in their operations to a bridge, as they would distribute trains with their passengers along a considerable frontage of the river, and which would be more quickly finished and put in operation, it seems a wrong system to try to raise capital for the construction of the gigantic bridge, destined perhaps never to pay a dividend. Already a tunnel has been carried two thirds of the distance across the river. If this should be finished and put in operation, the bridge might be relegated to future generations—it might be postponed until the bridge across the British Channel is commenced."

Concerning the cantilever type of bridge such as that which now crosses the Firth of Forth—the largest bridge in the world, which has been generally pronounced as great a marvel of ugliness as it is a wonder of engineering skill—it says:

"It is to be hoped that no structure of this sort will be built here. It would be a pity if the harbor of New York, with the Statue of Liberty and the Brooklyn Bridge, both objects of absolute beauty, were to have such an infliction as the Forth Bridge. Fortunately the action of the Secretary of War seems to prohibit it for the present at least."

THE rule for hardening steel is to "heat it cherry-red; then quench." But what is a "cherry-red"? asks J. N. Hobart, in *The Tradesman*. "Get a dozen men around the fire and let each one heat a bar of steel 'cherry-red.' I warrant that there will be as many degrees of heat as there are different men. This being the case, how is a man going to know how hot to heat steel, any way? He must learn by experience. Let him heat a piece of steel and see if it will harden. Note how hot it was heated, then heat again and quench it at a lower heat. It will probably harden at this heat also, and you will be surprised to find how low a heat steel will harden at. Once the lowest is found, remember it and use it. Call it 'cherry-red,' no matter how it looks to other people."

BOOKS THAT CARRY CONTAGIOUS DISEASE.

BOOKS as well as the writers of them have had their share of persecution. The former have been burned and the latter excommunicated, but generally, heretofore, because of the moral contagion their doctrines were thought to convey. A new reason has been discovered in our day for an *index expurgatorius*, in the danger of catching grave maladies from books. This danger is explained as follows in *L'Union Medicale*, of Paris:

"It has been lately proved in England that several cases of scarlatina and diphtheria were due solely to books taken from a lending-library. This fact gives force to a work just published by Dr. Trouskoliavski of St. Petersburg, who has devoted a great deal of time to researches as to the question how diseases can be caught from books. He made a microbiological analysis of blank-books which had not been used, and of books just issued from the Press, and found that such books were almost entirely free from microbes. On examining, however, the blank-books of hospitals and the volumes which had passed through the hands of the sick he found, on an average, forty-three bacteria in every square centimeter of paper. The most of these bacteria were not harmful, but among them were pathogenous bacteria like the streptococcus, the bacillus of tuberculosis. These microbes, fixed in the paper, are far from being inoffensive, since they keep their virulent qualities for a long time. In this way, Dr. Trouskoliavski has proved that the comma bacillus, put on dry sterilized paper, preserves its virulence from five to fourteen days; the typhus bacillus for sixty-three days; the diphtheritic bacillus for thirty-eight days; the streptococcus for ninety-eight days. It is then not only improper, but dangerous, to moisten one's thumb with saliva before turning the pages of a book."—*Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

Resistance of the Human Body to Cold.—At the meeting of the French Academy of Sciences, M. Pictet described his experiments on the radiation of heat from the human body at low temperatures (*La Nature*, December 8). After covering himself with furs he placed himself in a huge tube whose temperature could be reduced as low as -130°C . His head alone remained outside, as the respiration of air as cold as this would be seriously injurious. As low as -50° the furs arrested radiation, which fact explains the resistance to cold exhibited by polar animals. Beyond -70° the heat traversed the furs but the skin felt no sensation of cold. As a means of defense Nature excites internal phenomena of combustion and digestion. In fact, in four minutes the sensation of hunger began to be felt. M. Pictet asserts that by this means he was cured of dyspepsia, from which he had suffered for several years, eight sittings in a tube cooled down to -110° sufficing for the purpose.

The Electrical Theory of Vision.—The Edinburgh Medico-Chirurgical Society (December 5) has been discussing Prof. Oliver J. Lodge's theory that vision is due to a nervous disturbance in the retina somewhat analogous to the sudden increase of electrical conductivity shown by conducting powders under the influence of electric radiation. Dr. Milne Murray pointed out that the difficulty lay in explaining the nature of the energy which traversed the optical apparatus. All experience went to show that, whatever it was, it was not electricity, and did not in any way correspond to the laws which regulated electric action. Before accepting this hypothesis as explaining the physiology of vision it became necessary at least to show that the transmission of nerve energy could be influenced by luminiferous waves in the same way as the transmission of electric energy was influenced by Hertzian waves.

The Disposal of the Ashes After Cremation.—"The Prefect of the Seine," says *The British Medical Journal*, December 15, "has issued an ordinance that all persons who leased cases in the Père la Chaise columbarium in 1889 must renew the lease on January 1 or remove the urns. What is to become of the unclaimed ashes? The authorities say they have not yet come to a final decision on the matter. It is probable that unclaimed ashes will be buried in a corner of the cemetery or burned. There will not, however, be much to dispose of after all, for cremation does not seem to be much in favor with the Paris public. Since 1889,

when the crematory was opened at Père la Chaise, only 810 bodies have been cremated. The number, it is true, shows an annual increase, but it is very slow. Thus there were 49 cremations in 1889, 121 in 1890, 134 in 1891, 159 in 1892, 199 in 1893, and 148 in 1894 up to the end of July. More than three fourths of these cremations were gratuitous, the remains being mostly those of persons who have died in hospital, and been burned at the request of the family. The crematory is much more largely used for fetuses and shreds and tatters of humanity from the dissecting room and operating-theaters. Since 1889 till now 6,288 still-born children and the *dissecta membra* of 11,222 bodies have been burned at Père la Chaise."

Immunity from Disease a Relative Term.—"The early skepticism with regard to the possibility of the production of immunity against diphtheria," says *The Medical News*, Philadelphia, December 15, "was attributable, no doubt, to the fact that diphtheria, like pneumonia, is a disease of which an individual may have more than one attack. As a matter of fact, a patient who has once had diphtheria seems after a certain time to be more susceptible than an ordinary person of being attacked by the same disease. The creation of an artificial immunity to smallpox or scarlet fever would have seemed more easily understandable than that of an artificial immunity from diphtheria or from pneumonia. The conception of immunity had, therefore, to be widened considerably, and it seems necessary to make it a relative term; there are varying grades of resistance to infection, and varying lengths of time during which such resistance is valid, so that we can speak of a partial or a complete, of a temporary or of a permanent immunity. In diphtheria and pneumonia it is probable that a surviving patient does not become immune immediately after the cessation of the serious symptoms; it would seem rather that changes gradually occur in the body, bringing about immunity until a period of acme is reached which lasts for some time, and after which protection against reinfection becomes less and less certain, until finally the individual is quite as susceptible, or even more so, than one who has never passed through the disease."

SCIENCE NOTES.

MR. WILLIAM BROCK, of Paterson, N. J., according to *Electricity*, December 19, intends to show all the uses to which electricity can be put. He is having a home built for himself, and expects to have it completed in a few weeks. He will apply electricity throughout his domicile. The house will be heated by electricity, the cooking will be done on an electric range, the house will be cooled in Summer with electric fans; there will be a burglar-alarm connecting with every part of the house, electric annunciators, and the whole, from cellar to garret, will be lighted by electricity. The house will be so arranged that should it be invaded by a burglar an alarm will be given to the family when on the floor above, and by means of a switch the whole lower part of the house can be flooded with light. Should the burglar attempt to escape from one room to another or out of the doors he will give the alarm by stepping on mats that will give notice of the intruder's movements and whereabouts.

As a result of elaborate investigations in English mines, Dr. J. S. Haldane has come to the conclusion that in colliery explosions the deaths from suffocation are due, not, as is generally supposed, to carbonic-acid gas, but to the preponderance of nitrogen and the deficiency of oxygen. Life could be saved if the colliers could be supplied with oxygen for an hour or so; and the author has devised an apparatus for enabling a man to breathe oxygen, of which sixty liters are compressed into a half-liter bottle, with tube and regulating taps, supplemented by a wire compress for the nose to prevent breathing through that organ.

THE Directors of the German Vaccine Institute, at Weimar, are arranging for a celebration to be held in 1896, in commemoration of Jenner's discovery of vaccination. In connection therewith there is to be an exhibition of old and new vaccine-instruments, of apparatus for the preservation of lymph, etc.; of original manuscripts on smallpox and vaccination; on the inoculation of sheep-pox and cattle-plague in pre-Jennerian days; of squibs on vaccination, of medals, portraits and autographs of prominent inoculators, vaccinators, and anti-vivisectionists, etc.

THE Telegraph Historical Society of North America was organized in Washington, D. C., on December 5. Alonzo B. Cornell, of Ithaca, N. Y., was elected president. The object of the society is the collection, publication, and preservation of historical data concerning the birth and progress of the telegraph. About 250 members were enrolled; they represent all sections of the country.

A MEMORIAL celebration in honor of the life and works of the late Professor Hermann Helmholtz was held in Berlin, on December 14. The German Emperor and Empress and many other distinguished persons were present. A eulogistic address was delivered by Professor Bezold.

THE shortest electric road in the country is said to be the St. Louis and East St. Louis Electric Railway, which runs its cars over the Eads bridge across the Mississippi River at St. Louis.

THE RELIGIOUS WORLD.

DR. BEHREND'S SEVERE CRITICISM OF PROFESSOR BRIGGS.

UNDER the rather striking title, "The Old Testament Under Fire," Rev. Dr. A. J. F. Behrends (Congregational), of Brooklyn, devotes three articles to consideration of the "higher criticism" in general and to Professor Briggs's criticism in particular. The conclusion he reaches with regard to Professor Briggs's latest book is that it is "a bitter disappointment," a "strange medley," manifesting "undigested" learning, "chaotic" material and a "not judicial" tone of argument. Dr. Behrends's articles are contributed to successive issues of *The Christian Advocate* (Methodist-Episcopal), of this city. He sums up in five lessons what he has learned by his study of the last five years. The first lesson he has learned is that "the questions which criticism raises cannot be settled by mere argument." He thinks that demonstration is out of the question and that probability is all that can be reached; that "literary criticism is so largely subjective and conjectural that one may be excused for shrugging his shoulders when it becomes dogmatic and censorious."

The second lesson he has learned is that "while the present problems of the Old Testament are perfectly legitimate, their satisfactory solution is something which need not be looked for." The authors of the Old Testament, he adds, have not given us their authorities, and we cannot make good the literary omission. "Apart from tradition the literary problem is insoluble."

The third, fourth, and fifth lessons which he has learned are stated as follows:

"The third lesson which I have learned is that the literary criticism of the Biblical documents is, in grave and essential importance, subordinate to the historical criticism of their contents. In fact, literary criticism may almost be said to have become the servant of historical criticism. The crucial question is whether the Old Testament is substantially correct in the account which it gives of the rise and development of true religion, and of its culmination in the Messiah of law and psalms and prophecy. And here there is a subtle quality in its literary substance and form which wins my confidence the more familiar I am with it. It is pervaded by a high ethical tone. It does not picture ideal heroes. It sketches the shame as well as the glory, and both with literary simplicity. It exalts the veracity of God; His personal veracity as holiness, and His veracity in dealing with men, as remembering and keeping His covenant. The prophets never flatter. They speak words of truth and soberness. A lying history could not have been written by men breathing such an atmosphere. Be the difficulties of harmonizing what they may, were they tenfold greater than they are, they do not and could not compare with the monstrosity of a forged and false history issuing from men who hated and denounced lying."

"The fourth lesson which I have learned is that historical criticism of the Old Testament, so far as its results are revolutionary and destructive, proceeds upon utterly unwarrantable assumptions. It denies the reality of supernatural revelation and guidance. It sneers at miracles and discredits any history which contains them. It resolves predictions into happy guesses, or regards them as utter *post eventum*. It claims that where a law is generally disregarded and violated, the statute could not have existed. It insists that a steady, upward evolution is the universal law of history, and that Israel therefore could not have fallen from monotheism into idolatry, but must have risen from fetishism into monotheism. Taking so much for granted, the attempt to prove the recorded history misleading and incredible is a needless task. But every one of these assumptions is unscientific, and is discredited by history. . . . Destructive criticism discredits its own results by its unhistorical and unscientific assumptions, and as the foundations are laid in quicksand, the elaborate superstructure is doomed to collapse without the cost and the fatigue of a bombardment. When historical criticism ceases to make its conclusions the premises of its argument, it will be time enough to take it seriously."

"I pass to a fifth point. If the philosophical postulates of de-

structive criticism are unscientific and unhistorical, the conscious and wholesale literary immorality which it charges upon the Biblical writers provokes the resentment of every fair-minded student. It would not be so bad if the literature were evaporated into romance. But it is branded as counterfeit and as deliberately reversing the order of facts, as transferring to ancient times what was an afterthought and a late priestly invention."

After thus discussing in his first two papers the general principles of the higher criticism, Dr. Behrends proceeds in his final article to consider briefly Prof. Charles A. Briggs as a prominent exponent of higher criticism, and his latest book as the latest exposition of the subject. He writes, in opening the article, of the prominence of Professor Briggs, and then records his judgment of the disappointing character of the book, with the reasons therefor:

"The deserved prominence of Professor Briggs as a Biblical critic, and the wide attention which his utterances and trial have commanded, justify a brief reference to his last book, as outlining his present position. In it he professes to have given the results of twenty-seven years of critical study, and Christian scholarship had a right to expect as strong and conclusive an argument as it was possible for him to give. Candor compels me to say that the reader is doomed to bitter disappointment, and can only close the volume with the certain conviction that the author has not solved the problems of Old Testament criticism. The book is a strange medley, consisting of several documents of earlier publication, which have been amended, expanded, or contracted, with numerous interpolations of sentences and paragraphs, and with equally numerous reversals of previous judgments."

Professor Briggs's abandonment of his former conservative view is then set forth:

"It is practically an abandonment of the conservative ground which the author held ten years ago, a conservatism which at that time was regarded as dangerous liberalism. At that earlier period he had already occupied a professor's chair for fourteen years, and had been a specialist in Old Testament studies for seventeen years. He had mastered the literature of the whole subject, and the theories of Graf, Kuenen, and Wellhausen had long been familiar to scholars. Ten years ago his judgment of the composition and authorship of the Pentateuch was stated in these words: 'There is nothing in the variation of the documents as such to require that they should be successive and separated by wide intervals, or that would prevent their being very nearly contemporaneous. There is nothing in the distinction of the documents as such that forbids the Mosaic age as the time of their origin.'

"On the date of Deuteronomy Professor Briggs declared, in 1883, that De Wette's theory was 'exceedingly precarious.' He claimed to have disproved, against De Wette, the location of Deuteronomy in the age of Josiah, and to have shown that its origin must be thrown back into the Mosaic age. As to the post-exilic origin of the priest code, he maintained that there 'were insuperable objections' to such a theory, and he presented his reasons in detail. He admitted the order of development, for which Kuenen and Wellhausen contended, but he denied 'that it was necessary to postulate a thousand years for this development,' and he suggested that 'if we should suppose that Eleazar or some other priest gathered these detailed laws and groups of laws into a code at the time subsequent to the conquest, all the conditions of variation and development might be explained.'

"Between this and the contention of 1893 the gulf is deep and wide."

Dr. Behrends's estimate of the learning, scientific method, and constructive logic of this latest book of Dr. Briggs is expressed in the following paragraph:

"The last book displays no greater learning than the earlier essay, and in logical vigor it is decidedly inferior. His last volume has certainly not added to his reputation. Its learning is undigested. The material is chaotic. The tone of argument is not judicial. There is a painful want of logical clearness and consistency. Ingenious suggestions take the place of proof. Dangerous and revolutionary theories are modified by a personal caveat. Their logical issue is simply evaded. Names are made to take the place of evidence. The reader is overawed by a list

of authorities, in which all schools are indiscriminately jumbled together. The counter-arguments are in the main ignored, and conservative critics are labeled in schoolboy fashion."

In Dr. Behrends's view the mediating school, who attempt to defend the credibility and divine origin of the Old Testament against the destructive critics, after admitting the assumptions of the critics to be facts or established principles, have utterly failed in that attempt, and have left the burden of solving the problems of Old Testament criticism resting still upon the traditional school. In the following passage he gives his estimate of the achievements of Professors Briggs and Driver, as representatives of the mediating school, in their attempts to solve those problems:

"The reader who can divest himself of prejudice lays down the book with the feeling that, if this is the best that can be said, the problem has not even been clearly stated, and that its solution is a long way off. And the same judgment must be passed upon Canon Driver's book, which Professor Briggs speaks of as 'invaluable,' many a page of which bristles with assumptions for which not the slightest evidence is given. The critical processes are reverential in spirit, but they are very far from being severely scientific; and the historical criticism is thoroughly loose and arbitrary. The traditional view of the origin of the present Pentateuch may require modification, but the present mediating school cannot be said to have defended the credibility of the Old Testament, and its claim to being the record of a divine revelation, against the assaults of the destructive critics."

A suggested practical application of the same principles to a familiar section of modern history enforces, by a *reductio ad absurdum*, the critics' decision regarding the untenable character of those principles:

"It would be easy, adopting the methods of the current Old Testament criticism, to discredit the entire traditional history of the Plymouth colony, and to resolve it into an admixture of fact and fiction by pitting the writings of Bradford against those of Winslow, and by showing that in some particulars Bradford's history is contradicted by his *Letter Book*."

In conclusion, Dr. Behrends emphasizes the importance of common sense in Biblical study:

"Few things are more important for the critical study of the Bible than a liberal supply of downright common sense; and when historical criticism parts with common sense, applying tests to Scripture which would not be applied to any other historical literature, the critical results are discredited in advance. . . . The Bible, after all, is the handbook of redemption. It tells us 'how to go to heaven, not how the heavens go.' It has been given us to make us wise unto salvation, and to perfectly equip us for every service in righteousness. This has been its great and mighty mission in the past, and the past is sufficient to vindicate its unique dignity and authority."

HOW GENERAL GRANT WAS BAPTIZED.

THE charge that Bishop Newman baptized General Grant while the latter was unconscious is denied most emphatically by the Bishop. The charge was made as follows by *The Journal and Messenger* (Baptist), of Cincinnati:

"While General Grant was unconscious, Doctor, now Bishop, Newman hastened and got a bowl of water and rubbed some of it on his face, declaring that he then and there baptized him. We do not want our Methodist brethren to forget that performance. It ought to be kept vividly before the mind of all who ask about General Grant, and all who want to understand about the Methodist Church. General Grant was baptized by a subsequent bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church while he was unconscious. He lived some time after; but the best that *The Christian Advocate* can say of him is that he 'professed to believe in Jesus Christ and in the Christian religion,' 'gave many evidences that he did, but was not a communicant or member of any branch of the Christian Church.'"

The editor of *The Independent* has interrogated Bishop Newman on the subject, and the Bishop's reply appears in *The Independent* of December 20, as follows:

"My answer to the above gross misrepresentation of a solemn fact, and an unbrotherly assault upon the mode of baptism prac-

ticed by the whole Christian Church, immersionists excepted, is this: At five o'clock in the morning, on April 2, 1885, in his late residence in New York City, in the presence of his family, his physicians, and his attendants, I baptized General Grant, who was in full possession of his mental powers, and was intelligently conscious of the solemnity of the sacred rite.

"Referring to my daily journal of said month, I transcribe therefrom as follows:

"*Thursday, April 2d.*—Watched with the General all night. At 5 A. M. Colonel Grant came into the parlor where I was sitting, and said, 'Come.' There was a solemn significance in that word. All supposed that the General was dying. Wrapped in his silk robe, with a worsted cap upon his head, the great soldier reclined in a large arm-chair; his pulse was feeble, his brow cold, and an oppressive stillness prevailed. As I entered the sick room, Mrs. Grant and Mrs. Corbin, the General's sister, said to me: 'Doctor, the General has not been baptized, and we wish you to baptize him, now.' I consulted his sons, and to his wife and sons I replied: 'I will baptize him, if he is conscious; I cannot baptize an unconscious man.' All answered: 'We believe he is conscious.' We all knelt around the chair, and, as I began to pray, the General opened his eyes and looked steadily at me. As his physicians thought that he could not live five minutes longer, I prayed that God would receive his departing soul; but a grateful surprise awaited us. I then approached the General and spoke to him about his baptism, when he replied: 'I am obliged to you, Doctor; I had intended to take that step myself.' In the mean time, Colonel Grant had brought in a silver bowl full of water, and, with the General's expressed wish, I baptized the illustrious sufferer, in the 'name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost.' He was fully conscious, and with his own hand wiped away the water that had run down upon his face."

"My journal is too lengthy to transcribe all the eventful scenes in that sick room, which occurred during the four months he survived his baptism. It is enough to remark that a few days after this memorable event I spent two hours with General Grant in religious conversation, and asked him if he recalled the scenes of his baptism, to which he replied: 'Yes, perfectly; and as you came into the room I wondered why they had called you at that hour of the night.' To my remark, 'All thought you had not five minutes to live,' he gave this characteristic answer: 'I knew I was very low, but I did not intend to die; my work is not done; three times I have been raised from the valley and shadow of death.' During four months he lived and suffered; reviewed his first volume, and wrote the second volume of that great monumental work, which reflects his fine literary taste and the nobility of his character."

SHOULD WE PRAY FOR THE DEAD?

THE response which the Catholic Church makes to this question is, of course, generally known; it is not so generally known that the Church of England also authorizes such prayers and has in times past made them a feature of the Prayer-Book. Canon MacColl has recently written on "The Theology of the English Church concerning Prayers for the Dead," and he has shown not only that the English Church has never condemned prayers for the dead, and has even since the Reformation expressly approved them, but that they were included in the first Prayer-Book of Edward VI., that they were not condemned in the second Prayer-Book, that they were resorted to for a time under Elizabeth, and that, finally, they have been declared perfectly legal in our own time by the Court of the Archbishop of Canterbury. *The Spectator* comments at length on the Canon's argument. We quote from the article as follows:

"The belief in the easy good-nature of God is growing more and more rapidly in Protestant countries, and it is now thought almost superfluous to pray that he will do what any good-natured man would do if he had divine power, namely, rescue every sinner from the awful consequences of his own sin. Men are less and less willing to believe that there are such things as moral laws which God himself cannot reverse,—that he cannot forgive, for instance, an unrepented sin,—that he may not over-rule an obstinately unholy and defiant purpose. This makes the mass of modern Christians too careless to pray for what they regard God as almost unable to refuse. The old doctrine was that it took the most awful travail in the souls of the good, to help in securing the salvation of the evil, if haply it could be secured at all,—that the heartfelt penitence and self-abasement of the whole society in which temptation and sin had grown up, was not too great a sacrifice for the purpose of undoing the mischief which

its lax and easy-going ways had caused. That belief has been gradually undermined. We have somehow managed to forget how responsible we all are for each other's character, and how needful it is for the whole fraternity of transgressors to surrender themselves to the law which exacts a great atonement for a lax and licentious spirit. Men do not live and die by their own virtues or their own faults alone. They may, and often do, live on the virtues of others on which they idly lean, and die by the sins of others in which they permit themselves to be entangled. Every true penitent must feel, to the bottom of his heart, how many there are who would have been better if he himself had been better, and who have either drawn him, or been drawn by him, into the social whirlpool from which it is so difficult to escape. The very law of atonement which Christ proclaimed when he gave himself a ransom for many, is a social, not an individual law. His great sacrifice was not for individuals, however numerous, but for the race which had grown up into a common inheritance of both good and evil, and for every one who can avail himself of that great sacrifice. Now men can only do so by participating in Christ's own willingness to suffer for others, and Christ's own ardent desire to share with others the joy and glory of the divine life. But all this is a half-forgotten truth to our own day. We are quite willing to throw all the burden of our redemption on God, but are not willing to remember that before we can do so, we must show our right to share it by entering into the spirit of the great sacrifice by which alone God has redeemed us. . . .

"There appear to be, however, only two conceivable reasons for the condemnation of prayers for the dead; first, that their destiny is fixed absolutely and irrevocably at the time of death, and the other, that human prayer cannot affect the divine purpose at all. The last reason would dispose as effectually of the reasonableness of prayers for the living as it would for that of prayers for the dead. But that is directly contrary to the teaching of Christ, unless each is to pray for himself alone, which would imply, as Canon MacColl has shown, that men ought to be regarded as a collection of units without any true community of nature; whereas precisely the same reasons which render it right to pray for one's self, render it right to pray for others. As for the assumption that man's future destiny is irrevocably fixed at the moment of death, the only pretense for such a view rests upon a most irrational interpretation of Scripture for which there is no excuse. Since men pass into the other world,—and pass in multitudes,—in a very imperfect state, it is quite contrary to all we know of God's providence that they should be either crystallized in that condition without further purification, or be less dependent on the intercession of others for that purification in the other life than they are in this. That the English Church has so greatly disused, and in practice, at least, discouraged prayers for the dead, must be regarded rather as a reaction against the mechanical views of purgatory which were so prevalent at the time of the Reformation, than as implying either any acquiescence in a Calvinistic teaching which the English Church steadily resisted, or in a fatalism which strikes at the root of Christianity itself."

The next number of *The Spectator*, following that in which the above article appeared, contains a communication regretting its publication, and expressing the fear that it "will trouble many minds." The writer also says, among other things:

"Surely we have authority for regarding the situation of those who have passed away from us as at least very different from that of those for whom our daily prayers are made here. I think there is more to be taken into account than any easy optimism on our part in their position as regards God,—by whom, as the great Father of Spirits, every spirit must be so thoroughly and entirely understood. This is the case also on Earth, but we do not realize it and dwell in the certainty of it, as they must do between whom and Him there is no longer any veil of flesh. Then the removal of that veil of flesh removes the temptations that beset it—perhaps, I hope, removes all temptations—so that what between the cessation of these endless earthly will-o'-the-wisps which lead us astray here, and the new comprehension gained of God's meaning and of his purposes toward the individual soul, there must be added facilities and privileges which we can with difficulty estimate. If this is so, might not many find in systematic prayers for the dead a certain presumption as of those

who, being as yet but as servants in the house, should take upon them to persuade the Master of it to be gracious to his own children?"

Briefly replying to this communication, the editor of *The Spectator* says:

"Is it not quite equally true that praying for the living is the presumption of those who take upon themselves to persuade God to be generous to his own children? Yet this has been enjoined upon Christians, and not exclusively for the living."

MAX MÜLLER'S DISCLAIMER OF AGNOSTICISM.

WHEN taking part in a recent symposium in *The Agnostic Annual*, Prof. Max Müller took occasion to disclaim the title of Agnostic, and he now proceeds to tell us why he felt called upon to do so. In the opening of his article on the subject (*Nineteenth Century*, December), he finds some difficulty in hitting upon a satisfactory definition of the word Agnosticism. To define it as a mere negation of Gnosticism does not fit the present meaning. Two other explanations of the meaning of the word he gives, namely: (1) "That a man shall not say he knows or believes that which he has no scientific grounds for professing to know or believe;" (2) "to confess that we know nothing of what may be beyond phenomena." In the first sense, he thinks few men would object to accepting the title, though it leaves a wide door open to the discussion of what are "scientific reasons" in any particular case. Used in its second sense, it expresses no new attitude of the mind, the *Agnoia* of the Greek philosophers corresponding closely to it, and the *Docta Ignorantia* of the Middle Ages answering to the same description. Professor Müller, while admitting that he is not a follower of the Alexandrian Gnostics, and conceding that "all the objects of our knowledge are *ipso facto* phenomenal," nevertheless refuses to call himself an Agnostic because (1) he strongly sympathizes "with the objects which in the beginning Alexandrian Gnosticism and Neoplatonism had in view," and (2) because he holds that "the human mind in its highest functions is not confined to a knowledge of phenomena only."

An elaboration of his second point constitutes the main part of the article. The writer proceeds to develop his thought that the very name phenomenal, or apparent, implies something that appears, without which the phenomenal itself would be unthinkable. The existence of this something, variously called the nomenal, the real, the absolute, we have a right to predicate. He says:

"To take a very simple case. It is well known that we never see more than one side of the Moon. Yet such are the powers both of our sensuous intuition (*Anschauungsformen*) and of the categories of our understanding, that we know with perfect certainty, a certainty such as no experience, if repeated a thousand times, could ever give us, that there must be another side which on this Earth we shall never see, but which to our consciousness is as real as the side which we do see. These forms of sensuous intuition admit of no exception. The rule that every material body must have more than one side is absolute. In the same way, if we think at all, we must submit to the law of causality, a category of our understanding, without which even the simplest phenomenal knowledge would be impossible. We never see a horse, we are only aware of certain states of our own consciousness, produced through our senses; but that these affections presuppose a cause, or, as we call it, an object outside us, is due to that law of causality within us which we must obey, whether we like it or not.

"If, then, we have to recognize in every single object of our phenomenal knowledge a something or a power which manifests itself in it, and which we know, and can only know, through its phenomenal manifestation, we have also to acknowledge a power that manifests itself in the whole universe. We may call that power unknown or inscrutable, but we may also call it the best

known, because all our knowledge is derived from a scrutiny of its phenomenal manifestations. That it is, we know; what it is by itself, that is, out of relation to us or unknown by us, of course we cannot know, as little as we can eat our cake and have it; but we do know that without it the manifest or phenomenal universe would be impossible.

"This is the first step which carries us beyond the limit of Agnoia, and by which I am afraid I should forfeit at once the right of calling myself an Agnostic. But another and even more fatal step is to follow, which, I fear, will deprive me altogether of any claim to that title. I cannot help discovering in the universe an all-pervading causality or a reason for everything; for, even when in my phenomenal ignorance I do not yet know a reason for this or that, I am forced to admit that there exists some such reason; I feel bound to admit it, because to a mind like ours nothing can exist without a sufficient reason. But how do I know that? Here is the point where I cease to be an Agnostic. I do not know it from experience, and yet I know it with a certainty greater than any which experience could give."

This conclusion, also, Professor Müller says, is nothing new, Anaxagoras postulating the existence of what he called the *Nous*, and after thousands of years of research we can say no more than he said. He continues:

"If any philosopher can persuade himself that the true and well-ordered *genera* of nature are the result of mechanical causes, whatever name he may give them, he moves in a world altogether different from my own. He belongs to a period of thought antecedent to Anaxagoras. To Plato these genera were ideas; to the Peripatetics they were words or *Logoi*; to both they were manifestations of thought. Unless these thoughts had existed previous to their manifestation or individualization in the phenomenal world, the human mind could never have discovered them there and named them. We ought not to say any longer in the language of the childhood of our race 'In the beginning God created Heaven and Earth.' As Christians we have to say in the language of St. John and of his Platonic and Gnostic predecessors, 'In the beginning there was the *Logos*.'"

PLATO AS A FORERUNNER OF CHRIST.

PASSAGES in Plato's writings which some of the early Christian fathers attributed to divine inspiration, and which others attributed to a supposed acquaintance with the Hebrew Scriptures, have not lost their interest with the lapse of years. The latest defense of his right to the title, "the forerunner of Christ," appears in *Danskeren*, of Denmark. The more striking similarities between Plato's writings and the teachings of the Bible are set forth as follows:

"If we say, with Pressense, 'Greek Philosophy was a preparation for Christianity, and we do not seek in it a substitute for the Gospel,' we shall, as he also said, be in no danger of overstating its grandeur in order to estimate its real value. . . .

"In a general way we say that the propædæntic office of Grecian philosophy was to destroy the polytheistic notions of the nations and to substitute the theistic idea in a spiritual form. Plato contributed very much to this end by enforcing and enlarging the Socratic 'know thyself.' That maxim introverts the mental gaze. In consciousness are revealed the universal and necessary principles. From these absolute ideas Plato ascends to an *Absolute Being*, the author of all. This absolute being is Goodness, God. Plato will not tolerate images of God. He will not even allow the education of youth to include 'the stories which Hesiod and Homer and other poets told us.' God is the 'Supreme Mind,' 'incorporeal' and 'unchangeable,' 'eternal' and the 'source of all order and beauty.' . . .

"But Plato goes much further. His teachings awaken and en-throne conscience as a law of duty, and that involves the elevation and purification of the Moral Idea. To aspire after perfection of moral existence, to secure assimilation to God, is Plato's aspiration. He has justly been called 'the great apostle of the moral idea.' Such teachings were startling to a corrupt society, where all faith in a beneficent overruling Providence was lost. Such a society had need to be 'called to order' preparatory to the coming of the Lord. And Plato was its John the Baptist.

"He affirms again and again that man cannot by himself rise

to purity and goodness. 'Virtue is not natural to man, neither is it to be learned, but it comes to us by a divine influence. Virtue is the gift of God in those who possess it.' That 'gift of God' was about to be bestowed in fulness of power and blessing through the coming of Jesus Christ, 'the desire of the nations.' We clearly see 'the feeling after God' in these longings of Plato. From him the 'desire of the nations' spread to all Greece, for all looked to him as a prophet of the new, though they did not understand him.

"Plato went further yet. Indeed the idea of an Incarnation was not unfamiliar to the heathen mind. The incarnations of Brahm, particularly that of Vishnu, the second person of the Hindu Trinurti [Trinity] were known far and wide. Greek mythology abounded in metamorphoses. It was, therefore, quite natural that the people of Lystra, when they saw Paul and Barnabas, should say: 'The gods have come down to us in the likeness of men.' The idea of incarnation had become so common that we find it in poetry. Virgil, the Roman poet, who was contemporary with Christ, seems to re-echo the prophecy of Isaiah:

"The last age decreed by the Fates is come,
And a new frame of all things does begin;
A holy progeny from heaven descends
Auspicious in his birth, which puts an end
To the iron age, and from which shall rise
A golden age, most glorious to behold."

"Plato contemplates with sadness the fallen state of man. In the 'Phædrus' he describes man's original purity and happiness, and laments 'this happy life, which we forfeited by our transgression.' To restore this lost image of holiness is the work of God; man cannot do it himself. 'Virtue is the gift of God.' Plato thus discovered the need of a Saviour; he saw clearly the desire of the human heart for a Saviour. But he did not predict his coming; at least not in very emphatic terms. He hints at a 'conqueror of sin,' an 'assuager of pain,' an 'avertor of evil.' . . .

"Since the time of the Fathers it has been customary to read the story of the crucifixion in Plato's 'Republic,' where is discussed the question, Which is the happier life, that of the just man persecuted as a criminal, or of the unjust man honored and apparently successful in all his undertakings? 'There will be no difficulty,' said Glaucon, 'in ascertaining what life will be the lot of either. It shall be told, then; and even if it should be told with more than unusual bluntness, think not that it is I who tell it, Socrates, but those who prefer injustice to justice. These, then, will say, that the just man thus situated—considered as a criminal—will be scourged, tortured, fettered, have his eyes burned out, and, lastly, suffering all manner of evil, will be crucified; and he will know, too, that, in the common opinion, a man should desire not *to be*, but to *appear*, just. . . . The other, on the contrary, holds the magistracy in the State, . . . marries . . . succeeds, etc.' There is no real reason to believe that Plato had read the prophecies of Isaiah. . . .

"When we consider this delineation of the Son of God, and Plato's declaration that man should assimilate himself to the Deity; that God is the source of good but not of evil, and that regeneration is a gift of God; that the soul is immortal, and that there is a future retribution for all, we are justified in calling Plato a forerunner of Christ."—*Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

RELIGIOUS NOTES.

THE Moravian Church is an object-lesson to all Protestant Christianity in missionary zeal and liberality. Mrs. Isabella Bird Bishop is authority for the statement that the Moravians "have one missionary out of every sixty of their members. The other churches of the United Kingdom have but one missionary out of every five thousand. Were Great Britain equally zealous and sacrificing she would have two hundred thousand toilers in the regions beyond, and spend yearly £20,000,000 in the world's evangelization, instead of the pittance of £1,500,000 which she now contributes."—*The Methodist Magazine, Toronto.*

BISHOP VINCENT, in speaking recently upon "The Church as a Social Institution," is reported to have said: "Our young people pass along our streets at night and behold the theaters, saloons, and many shops ablaze with light. They do not pause at the doors of our churches. And why? Because they are closed, cold, and dreary-looking. I tell you it is a great mistake. Let our churches be opened three hundred and sixty-five days in the year. Let there be no vacations. Then our young people will go to the churches, and not to other places."

The Bible Society Record states that the joint circulation of the American and the British and Foreign Bible Societies has passed the round number of 200,000,000 copies, and their receipts have aggregated \$84,000,000.

FROM FOREIGN LANDS.

INTERNATIONAL COMPLICATIONS OVER ARMENIA.

FOR several decades past Europe has been disturbed by the question what to do with Turkey. The atrocities that are reported as committed by the Sultan and his subjects upon the almost defenseless Christians in the Ottoman Empire have every once in a while roused in the people of Europe the desire to drive the Mussulman back. Turkey has long since lost all political influence, but the jealousy of the Powers, who cannot agree about the spoils, have lengthened the days of the Ottoman Empire, and this jealousy has even prevented the Christians from helping themselves. The Powers assisted the Bulgarians, Servians, and Rumanians very reluctantly, when these nations determined to free themselves, and the same hesitation seems to reign now with regard to Armenia. No one begrudges the Armenians their freedom, but what is to be done with the rest of Turkey? The *Kölnische Zeitung*, a paper which, just now, is much opposed to England, and therefore not likely to exaggerate in its accounts of the Armenian atrocities, writes as follows:

"The fate of the Armenian Christians is precisely the same as that of the earliest Christian communities. Neither their life nor the honor of their women nor their property is safe one moment from the rapacious Turks. When the jails are so full of these unhappy people that room must be made, the Turkish authorities cause some of them to vanish without a trace. It is almost impossible to give an adequate idea of their sufferings. Among the tortures inflicted upon them is roasting their hands over the coals, and throwing them naked upon ice. Justice is a very rare thing in Armenia, and the testimony of a Christian goes for nothing. It is not true that the Armenians are a rebellious people. In Persia, where they have equal rights with the Mohammedans, they are among the best subjects of the Shah. The fact is, the Turks intend to end the Armenian question by simply exterminating the Armenians; but it is not an easy thing to kill off a whole race of people, especially when they are as intelligent as the Armenians. If only they were allowed to carry arms. But while the Turks and Kurds often possess the most modern rifles, an Armenian is not even allowed to carry a large knife."

The writer believes that Europe will now be compelled to do as much for Armenia as has been done for other Christian nations under Turkish rule. Although Armenia is distant, and the Porte does its best to prevent news from going abroad, the cruelties lately committed cannot be hushed up. On the whole, the Germans acknowledged that their suspicion against England, with regard to the Armenian affair, was inspired by the Austrians. Although they still asserted that England sees in the misconduct of the Turks a welcome cause for interference in Asia Minor, Austria, who already has her hands full with the Turkish provinces which were turned over to her, does not just now desire a partitioning of Turkey; but even the official papers in the Dual Monarchy are forced to acknowledge that the Armenians are treated with great barbarity. The *Pester-Lloyd*, Budapest, says:

"It is difficult to answer the question why this affair should be made so much of in London, and whence this animosity against the Porte. Perhaps England wishes to please Russia. It would not be the first folly of which the Liberal politicians on the Thames have been guilty. Those gentlemen seem to forget that a very slight shock to the situation in Turkey might upset the whole edifice, and bring about a state of confusion of which it is impossible to foresee the consequences. It is to be hoped that the Powers will remain calm and composed enough to select the right means for alleviating the sufferings of the Armenians without creating a question that will endanger the peace of Europe."

The *Neue Freie Presse*, Vienna, says:

"Civil strife in Armenia is always barbarously conducted, but that does not prove that any foreign Power has a right to inter-

fere. If the Armenian atrocities are grossly exaggerated in England, it is probably done for very different reasons than those of humanity. One is almost inclined to suspect that, by persistently putting forward these atrocities, and at the same time bringing grave accusations against the Porte, it is intended to do Russia a service. If it is true that Russian troops are massed on the frontier, it means a menace to Turkey, which can only be caused by an agreement between Russia and England."

Although the majority of the English people no doubt desire earnestly to help the suffering Armenians, they do not feel very comfortable in the face of Lord Rosebery's courtship of Russia. The most notable warning against this departure from England's traditional policy appears in the *St. James's Gazette*, in which a Member of Parliament writes as follows:

"It is to be hoped that the English public will not be silly enough to subscribe largely to the new Russian loan and thus provide the Russian Government with the sinews of war for an early attack upon Turkey. The Russian army on the Armenian frontier has just been reinforced by 20,000 men. The ridiculous exaggerations and fictions which are now styled the 'Armenian atrocities' are being carefully worked up in the interest of Russia. The gentlemen who are now vamping so actively about these alleged cruelties were remarkably silent as to the far more horrible Russian persecutions of the Jews, and as to the atrocious massacre of the Turcomans a few years ago by General Skobeleff's soldiers. It has been impossible for Russia to float a loan in England for some years past. For the sake of peace and British interests, one may hope that this appeal to British investors will be a failure."

The *Temps*, Paris, agrees with other papers that the cruelties of the Turks should be stopped, but the paper has also something new for its readers. We summarize as follows:

"The news that the Washington Government intended to send a Commissioner to inquire into the Armenian atrocities is very grave. Already America has taken a leading part in the settlement of the war between China and Japan. It must be admitted that this can be accounted for, as so many interests of the great Republic are involved in the Far East. But this does not explain the despatch of a Commissioner to Armenia, which must be regarded as an abandonment of the Monroe Doctrine, in virtue of which the United States has declined to interfere in any war on European questions. This is a grave symptom, fraught with momentous consequences. It means that America has become the seventh Great Power in Europe."

The Sultan has refused permission to the United States Commissioner to make an independent investigation, or even to proceed to the scene of the atrocities.

A Revival of Blockade-Running.—As the war in the Far East progresses, something more is heard in connection with it than mere detail of battles and the possible attitude of the Powers. It appears that some of the romance which enlivened the days of our Civil War is beginning to appear in the China-Japanese struggle. Blockade-running is the order of the day, and daring men can reap a golden harvest by conveying munitions of war to the Chinese. The *Shipping Telegraph*, Liverpool, relates the following:

"A steamer has been chartered to convey munitions of war to the China Seas, and is now on her way thither from a Continental port. As the vessel is owned very near home, we refrain from publishing the name of the steamer, for it is not desirable to help the Admiralty in this case to enforce the Foreign Enlistment Act. The freight paid is enormous, and is greater than the amount the vessel would fetch if sold in the open market. The venture has been insured at three guineas per cent., and we hear that the liveliest interest is manifested by those who are aware of the enterprise, as to its success. Wagers have been laid as to the possibility of the vessel being stopped by a British gunboat at one of the English stations *en route*, or of her being captured by a hostile cruiser. The enterprising owners stand to make a small fortune should the vessel arrive safely at her destination."

DEMOCRACY OR ABSOLUTISM IN GERMANY —WHICH?

THE possibilities of a European war are always discussed, but an immediate outbreak is not feared just now, and so the nations apply themselves with vigor to the adjustment of their internal affairs. In England the movement is for an extension of democratic rule. In Germany the movement is for an extension of the power of the Government.

The present Parliament in Germany is held in little respect by the people, and nothing but the fear that the Government might abuse its power prevents the people from demanding a dissolution of the Reichstag unanimously. The Government has made what is quite generally declared a mistake in proposing anti-revolutionary measures at a time when no one but professional politicians think of a revolutionary movement. The *Kölnische Zeitung*, Cologne, sketches the situation as follows:

"Compared with the rapid development of parliamentary life during the first ten years of the Empire, when an extraordinary number of able, distinguished men were counted among all parties, the present representation is a sorry picture of hopeless decadence and empty party strife. Mediocre men predominate to such an extent in the Reichstag that we would have to be very much ashamed, were it not for the fact that similar symptoms are noticed in other Parliaments. The social position of the representatives has sadly declined. Many make their living out of their parliamentary career; in others a strict sense of duty is altogether wanting. . . . The moderate parties anxiously look for the energetic support of the Government, but are themselves so much divided upon the most vital questions that they cannot offer support to the Ministry in return."

It is only natural that every one should be interested in the struggle between the Government and the Social-Democratic Party, the only one which forms a solid phalanx in the Reichstag. The moderate Liberal parties are clamoring for repressive measures against the Socialists, and under cover of the most devoted loyalty to the Crown, it is charged, they wish to institute a reign of persecution against the Fourth Estate, the laboring classes. This is aptly described in an article in the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, Berlin, a magazine much in vogue with the official classes. The editor writes:

"Not the fear of Anarchistic or revolutionary uprisings has led the Middle Parties into this foolish campaign, but rather a presentiment of the power to which the Socialists will rise when they act in a moderate and parliamentary manner. This campaign must lastingly discredit those parties. It is bad enough when Liberals clamor for a gag law; it is worse when they cannot push it through. During the late supplementary elections many Conservatives have voted for the Socialist candidate. That is very characteristic: it proves that the Conservative will not allow his freedom of the Press, his right to hold meetings to be curtailed, and the Middle Parties will find that out during the next election. It remains to be seen whether the German people possess the intellectual strength necessary to form parties more suitable to the times."

The Government refuses to proceed against the Socialists in particular. The *Umsturz* Bills will equally apply to members of all parties. Moreover, these proposed anti-revolutionary measures will be modified to such a degree that their passage is assured. What the Socialists fear most is that the Emperor will adjourn the Reichstag for an indefinite period. This would deprive them of all chances to continue their obstructionist policy; and they are hardly strong enough to create a revolution. Prof. H. Herkner writes in the *Zukunft*, Berlin:

"Only two alternatives are open: to enslave the masses by depriving them of their political rights, or to put them in a position where they can better use their power to benefit the whole. Lately many proposals have been heard which aim at a realization of the first-mentioned alternative: a dictatorship resting upon the army. . . . Such a personal government is to-day impossible. During the last century Frederick the Great still

managed to conduct the affairs of state. To-day there is no longer a monarch or statesman who can form a just idea of social, political, and economical conditions of the country. The attempted personal rule would in reality turn out to be that of an official clique, influenced by the landlords and capitalists."

Professor Herkner points out that even the most conscientious absolute monarch could not advance the interests of the masses in the face of such difficulties. According to an article in the *Nord-deutsche Allgemeine-Zeitung*, Berlin, the Emperor nevertheless means to resist the temptation.

"The new Chancellor [says the officially inspired paper] is not the man to run his head against a stone wall uselessly. He will endeavor to obtain from the Reichstag whatever is necessary to carry on the Government, without any serious conflict. Trouble with the Parliament would make it impossible for him to reach his aims."

ATTACKS UPON THE ITALIAN PREMIER.

THE Italian Government has just passed through a curious crisis; Premier Crispi has been accused of having shared in the plunder of the Banca Romana. Those who follow a political career for the purpose of filling their pockets are specially numerous in France and Italy, or at least revelations concerning them have been of late especially numerous in those two countries, in connection with the Panama scandals in the one, and the Banca Romana scandals in the other. Signor Giolitti, the former Premier of Italy, who was himself implicated in the bank scandals, has now accused Signor Crispi, the "Bismarck of Italy," of similar misconduct. The Opposition demanded an investigation, to be held by the whole Chamber of Deputies; but the King adjourned the Chamber and appointed a committee of investigation. According to the report of the committee, Signor Crispi never received any money which he did not refund. This verdict of the committee has restored the confidence of the King and the people in their Premier. Giolitti, the man who wished to lower Crispi's reputation, will be arrested when he returns from Berlin, where he has fled. The *Secolo*, Milan, a determined Opposition paper, says:

"In the face of such accusations against the Premier, there are only two alternatives, from a Constitutional point of view: the resignation of Crispi, followed by the formation of a new Ministry which will determine the budget and order a general election; or to leave Crispi where he is, with consequences so great that we will not attempt to describe them."

The *Riforma*, Rome, says:

"Only two ways are open: to combat the violence of the Chamber by violent means, or to arm the Speaker with sufficient authority to enable him to enforce the respect due to him and the necessary decorum of the assembly. We do not believe in the former, as the sacred cause of the country will not permit it, but we urgently advocate the latter course, for human patience has its limits."

The *Nazione*, Florence, relates that Tanlongo, the President of the Banca Romana, was induced by Giolitti to falsify the text of certain documents in order to compromise Crispi. These documents were among the papers which Giolitti managed to smuggle away while the Banca Romana trial was going on, and which he recently submitted to the Chamber of Deputies for the purpose of giving the Opposition a chance to agitate against Crispi. Giolitti caused the imprisoned bank president to be brought into his rooms, and forced him by threats to sign these documents.

THE coasts bordering the North Sea have been ravaged by a storm and spring tide. Such occurrences are as common there as cyclones in Kansas, but it appears that the waters rushed over the dikes with more than usual force, and cities situated more than twenty miles inland were inundated. The disaster came so suddenly that the people of Hamburg could not save their property, for the waters were upon them a few minutes after the artillery of the coast-guard had sounded forth its warning boom.

RUSSIA'S FINANCIAL POSITION.

THE French nation has, during the last few years, shown itself more willing to invest in Russian bonds than any other European people. No less than \$1,000,000,000 of French capital are invested in Russia, most of which has been subscribed during the last ten years. It is not only with a view to financial profit that France has thus generously opened her purse; her people also hope to receive political support from the great Northern Empire in case of war. The death of Czar Alexander III. and the possibility of a change in Russian politics is therefore regarded with some anxiety in Paris. Paul de Cassagnac recently reminded his countrymen in his *Autorité*, Paris, that they had spent 5,000,000,000 francs in Russian securities, without receiving much advantage. He touched upon the Alsace-Lorraine question, and gave them to understand that five milliards of francs were worth a signed and sealed treaty of alliance between France and Russia. His cry of alarm did not receive much attention during the time following the late Czar's death, when France was kept busy expressing her sympathy with Russia. But Cassagnac's cry has now been taken up by other French papers. The *Soir*, Paris, prints some revelations concerning the financial state of Russia, and its article has disturbed the peace of mind of investors considerably, as it was written in accordance with the views of M. de Cyon, who is regarded as a high authority. M. de Cyon is a Russian by birth, and has held important positions under the Russian Government. He has done much to place Russian bonds in France, and has somewhat of a name among French journalists, as he edited the *Gaulois* for some time, and has contributed to more than one notable Paris publication. His revelations regarding the state of Russia's finances occupy three columns in the *Soir*, Paris, and run in the main as follows:

"The realm of the Czar is as nearly as possible bankrupt. A complete breakdown of Russia's finances is almost unavoidable, and a social revolution must necessarily follow. There is only one parallel to the present condition of the great Northern Empire, and that is the state of France in the period just before the Revolution of 1789. Much of this state of affairs is due to the blunders of the last two Ministers of Finance, Vishnegrodski and Witte, who were responsible for the deplorable manner in which Russia favored Germany. The latest commercial treaty with Germany threatens further to ruin Russian farmers, for it will accentuate the harm done by overproduction, as it raises false hopes of an increased sale of Russian grain to foreign nations. Russia cannot possibly regain her prosperity unless she is willing to unite herself firmly and lastingly with the French Republic. If, however, Emperor Nicholas II. repeats the parliamentary attempts of his grandfather, and, following the advice of the Germans, gives a constitution to his country, a revolution and the collapse of the Empire must necessarily follow."

Totally different from the preceding is the opinion of a writer in the *Nation*, Berlin. Mr. Theodor Buck addresses his communication from St. Petersburg, where he resides, and his article paints Russian finances very much *coulour de rose*. The *Nation* is a paper of the most advanced Liberal type, and its editor, Dr. Booth, is supposed to express the opinion of the Jewish financiers of Berlin. Theodor Buck writes:

"Although the reign of Alexander III. was comparatively short, it was one of the most important for the economical development of Russia. Those who believe that Russia should above all aim at a complete adoption of modern civilization may not be able to judge favorably every particular of the late Emperor's reign, but there is one special sphere in which he brought about more improvement than any of his predecessors, and that is the credit and the finances of the State. . . . During the first half of his reign the country suffered from a chronic deficit, in consequence of the financial calamities occasioned by the Russian-Turkish War. But even this period is marked by a most satisfactory economy. During the last seven and a half years—since the beginning of Vishnegrodski's administration of Russian

finances—there has been a very acceptable surplus, and a reduction of the public debt could be carried out."

The writer here quotes some figures, which tend to show that in 1881 there was a deficit of 80,000,000 rubles (\$40,000,000). In 1887 there was a surplus of 6,000,000, which was increased in 1893 to 98,000,000. The debt of Russia could have been much more reduced, were it not for the fact that the Government uses its surplus to develop the resources of the country.

THE WAR IN THE FAR EAST.

IT is now possible to distinguish a little more clearly what the Japanese are doing in China. The first Japanese army, formerly commanded by Field-Marshal Yamagata, but now under General Nadsu, has had several encounters with the Chinese and at last effected a junction with the second army, under Count Oyama, the army which stormed Port Arthur. The united forces will march upon Tien-Tsin, the last place which can offer any resistance and prevent the victors from going to Peking. The Japanese have a long march before them, and cannot be expected to reach Peking before Easter. If the foe they have to deal with were less demoralized, their march would be extremely imprudent. They leave Moukden, the ancient capital, in their rear, and are in danger of an attack from Manchuria. It is, however, very likely that they will detach a strong corps to watch Moukden. No Chinese army of any consequence is likely to oppose them before they reach the Lwan-ho, and if it comes to the worst they can retire to the coast, where their victorious navy can shelter and receive them. The army now in China is said to be 72,000 strong. Another force is assembled at Hiroshima, in Japan, but its destination is as yet unknown, although it is probable that this army will be sent to occupy the island of Formosa.

That China is thoroughly beaten and unable to resist her enemy is doubted by few persons, although the war has hardly begun. A general scramble for the plunder by the Powers is expected, but Japan is likely to resist any attempt to rob her of the fruits of her victory. The *Mainichi Shimbun*, Tokio, says:

"Any one whose prowess or virtue, or both, are sufficient to force the people into submission could become Emperor of the Chinese. The present Manchu dynasty appears to be doomed to destruction, but on its ruins another line of emperors is likely to arise. This old law of political mutation is too firmly established to be abrogated. China, it is true, after the destruction of the reigning dynasty, may remain for a time in a state of anarchy, but that will end when a strong hero has forced his way to the throne of the old Emperors. The colossal Empire is not likely to share the fate of either Rome, India, or Poland, and among all future political changes in China the most impossible is that she should experience the sorrows of Poland, for Japan, whose position is specially favorable for bringing about such a result, is not only against it, but even ready to prevent any other Power or Powers from accomplishing it."

The *Japan Gazette*, Yokohama, a paper which is noted for its animosity to Japanese aspirations, has now become convinced that the Middle Kingdom is a fraud, and speculates upon the possible result of the war. Europe, thinks the editor, will profit by the victories of Japan. The Empire which was thought to be invincible is now traversed by a handful of courageous men. The *Gazette* then goes on to say:

"China cannot fight; she must prepare for dismemberment. . . . It is not unlikely that Britain, under the sudden pretense of upholding the honor of her flag, is about to set the example. Great Britain has insisted upon very heavy indemnification for the outrage offered to the *Chung-king*,* and if the terms be

* The *Chung-king* is a British steamer which was boarded by the Chinese soldiery at Shanghai. Several Japanese passengers were carried off, but were restored to the vessel next day. The incident is one of common occurrence in wars, and would not be made anything of, were it not for China's weakness.—ED. LITERARY DIGEST.

not promptly complied with, it is asserted, reprisals will be made. The nature of the reprisals may be guessed at, since Great Britain is anxious for a Northern coaling station; but if any such step be taken, it will mean a general scramble, for France has outrages to be indemnified, and Russia will not lose an opportunity for lack of pretext."

The *Asahi*, Tokio, also draws attention to the conduct of Great Britain:

"England proposes to set up Winter quarters for 6,000 Indian troops at Chusan. . . . It is possible, therefore, that she may attempt to obtain influence over China with the power she will gain as creditor. But what England approves of, Russia and France will condemn. As their individual interests are at variance, the Powers cannot possibly come to an agreement, and England will not be able to have everything her own way."

Hong Kong is naturally well situated for obtaining a comprehensive view of the political situation, and the Hong Kong papers are not slow in taking advantage of this fact. *The Overland Mail*, Hong Kong, finds that the French are preparing to resist British colonial politics in the Far East, and complains that Frenchmen everywhere exhibit the same passionate hatred against England. The editor says:

"The present situation in the Far East is serious enough already without being made worse by irresponsible journalists. Before a permanent political adjustment can be made after the defeat—the inevitable defeat—of China by Japan, there will be serious diplomatic complications among the Powers. If there is any attempt to break up the vast Empire and parcel it out among the Powers (giving Japan a fair share as to the fruits of her conquest), the international controversy may be over the future possession of the island of Formosa."

The *Independence Tonquinoise*, Tonkin, writes as follows:

"China is a market monopolized by England, which has turned Hong Kong into a vast *entrepôt* of riches. . . . Japan, entering upon the scene, strikes a blow at the material and moral strength of China, and upsets the plans of British diplomacy. What will England do to save her interests? . . . Port Hamilton, easy to seize, offers itself as a tempting prey to British greed. It was thus that Britain compensated herself for the Russian victories after 1877, when she appropriated Cyprus and established herself in Egypt. Will Europe allow Great Britain to occupy Port Hamilton? In that case France ought to take the Pescadores and Formosa to assert her rights in the Far East."

How China is Armed.—Incredible stories are told of the cupidity of Chinese officials. The money intrusted to them to purchase arms and ammunition was for the most part, it is generally understood, abstracted by them and only a very inferior quality of arms was purchased. All kinds of devices have been resorted to in order to prevent an inspecting official from obtaining a just idea of the state of the armament and troops commanded by the mandarin defaulters. The *Ost-Asiatische Lloyd*, Shanghai, tells the following amusing story:

"An Englishman resident in Shanghai wished to have his fireplace repaired and sent his Chinese servant to fetch some clay. He was highly astonished to see the man return with a howitzer shell on his back, which he put down in front of the fireplace. Before the master could expostulate with the servant the latter had picked up a hammer and given a blow to the shell. The master's horror changed to curiosity when he saw that the dangerous-looking missile was formed of clay. He received the following explanation. Early in April Li Hung Chang came to inspect the fleet and arsenal at Shanghai. Unfortunately the magazines which were supposed to be filled with ammunition were nearly empty, and the responsible mandarins would no doubt have lost their heads had not one of the captains conceived the idea of having the ammunition copied in clay and painted. Li Hung Chang came, inspected—and found everything in good order. Afterward the imitation shells were resold to the contractor who had supplied them."

SUFFERING OF ALSACE-LORRAINE.

MADAME ADAM, a French woman and an implacable enemy of Prussia, describes the administration of Prince Hohenlohe, the new German Chancellor, in Alsace-Lorraine, as that of the most cruel taskmaster who could well be appointed over the people of those provinces. The favorable reports of the Prince's conduct and character, while at Strassburg, are, she thinks, due entirely to the Germans who have emigrated to Alsace-Lorraine from other States. She says:

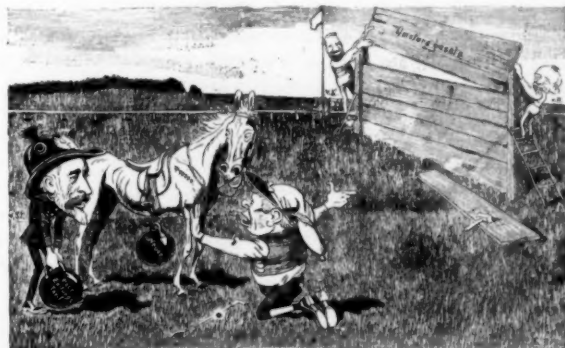
"Prince Hohenlohe has, indeed, definitely left Strassburg, but only to be replaced by another Hohenlohe. Has the Hohenlohe dynasty taken possession of Alsace-Lorraine as the Hohenzollerns have possessed themselves of Germany? The rabble of German immigrants marched before Prince Hohenlohe on the day of his departure, and loudly cheered him, singing "Deutschland, Deutschland über Alles!" But the train which conveyed the Prince to Berlin did not carry any regrets on the part of the Alsations. But it does not matter to them whether one Hohenlohe goes and another arrives. No new vexatious and rigorous rules can be invented. Prince Clovis has exhausted the list and applied them all. His predecessor, Marshal Manteuffel, essayed to reconcile the people with the German rule by a system of flattery, liberality, and gracious demeanor—all without success. Prince Hohenlohe has tried persecution and implacable hatred, with no other result than the sowing of sorrow and ruin in the two provinces. He has introduced the odious passport system which tortures the population by depriving them of the visits of their relatives and friends living in France. He has inflicted commercial ruin, and caused the cruel prosecution of people with French sympathies. It was he who relentlessly tried to efface all traces of the French rule by changing the names of streets and even cemeteries. Such hypocritical, treacherous acts always followed his return from his frequent visits to Berlin, which earned for him the name of 'Clovis the Absent.' The Emperor's liking for him dates from that time. It is said that he is the Emperor's secret banker. At Strassburg the arrogant governor spent little, despite his immense fortune. Prince Hohenlohe-Langenburg, his successor, is a fanatical Prussian, and treats our beloved Alsations and Lorraines according to Prussian methods."

FOREIGN NOTES.

DIFFERENCES with the Emperor-King have caused the Hungarian Ministry to resign. Premier Wekerle has successfully brought the Civil-Marriage Bill through the Chambers, and carried out other important reforms. The majority of the Hungarians support the Ministry, but the Emperor, true to the traditions of his House, cannot forgive an attack upon the Roman Catholic Church, and has demanded the resignation of the champion of reform.

THE Chinese continue to "concentrate themselves backward." New-Chwang, one of their strongest cities on the coast, has been evacuated. The assistance rendered the Chinese by some rebellious Koreans has also proved futile; the rebels were dispersed by the Japanese. The uprising against the Manchu rule in Western China gains strength, and there is a talk of an independent Turkestan under Russian suzerainty.

EMPEROR NICHOLAS II. has given further proofs of his confidence in the people. The guards detailed to watch his person have been reduced in number, and the secret police will not, in future, watch the Sovereign on all his walks. The Russians appear to be much astonished. When the Czar, a few days ago, asked the crowd which gathered around him whether any one wished to address him, no one found courage to do so.



HANDICAPPING THE PRESS.

—Kladderadatsch, Berlin.

MISCELLANEOUS.

NAPOLEON ON THE THRESHOLD OF HIS CAREER.

PERHAPS the most striking trait of Napoleon's boyhood and young manhood, as described by Professor Sloane in the instalments being published of his "Life of Napoleon Bonaparte," was shiftiness. His political ideas, his personal ambitions, his religious convictions, all seem to have been in a state of flux, corresponding somewhat to the condition of his family fortunes and perhaps attributable in a measure to them. The third instalment of the "Life" (*Century*, January) presents an interesting pen-picture of the young Corsican on the eve of his wonderful career. The period is that immediately following Napoleon's flight from Corsica, where he had been trying to secure the rule of the French at a time when France herself was in the throes of revolution. Napoleon and the rest of the family, of which he was now the head, sought and secured a haven in Toulon, where some provision was made by the National Convention of France for their support because of the losses incurred in Corsica. Here is the description by Professor Sloane of Napoleon at this period, at the age of twenty-six:

"It is impossible to conceive of a lot more pitiful or a fate more obdurate than his had so far been. There was little hereditary morality in his nature, and none had been inculcated by training; he had no vital piety, nor even sincere superstition. A butt and an outcast at a French school under the old *régime*, he had imbibed a bitter hatred for the land indelibly associated with such haughty privileges for the rich and such contemptuous disdain for the poor. He had not even the consolation of having received an education. His nature revolted at the religious formalism of priestcraft; his mind turned in disgust from the scholastic husks of its superficial knowledge. What he had learned came from inborn capacity, from desultory reading, and from the untutored imaginings of his garden at Brienne, his cave at Ajaccio, or his barrack chambers. What more plausible than that he should first turn to the land of his birth with some hope of happiness, usefulness, or even glory! What more mortifying than the stupefying revelation that in manhood he was too French for Corsica, as he had been in boyhood too Corsican for France!

"The story of his reception and adventures in Corsica has no fascination; it is neither heroic nor satanic, but belongs to the dull and mediocre realism which makes up so much of commonplace life. It is difficult to find even a thread of continuity in it: there may be one as to purpose; there is none as to either conduct or theory. There is the passionate admiration of a Southern nature for a hero as represented by the ideal Paoli. There is the equally Southern quality of quick but transient hatred. The love of dramatic effect is shown at every turn, in the perfervid style of his writings, in the mock dignity of an edict issued from the grotto at Milelli, in the empty honors of a lieutenant-colonel without a real command, in the paltry style of an artillery inspector with no artillery but a few dismantled guns.

"But the most prominent characteristic of the young man was his shiftiness, in both the good and bad senses of the word. He would perish with mortification rather than fail in devising some expedient to meet every emergency; he felt no hesitation in changing his point of view as experience destroyed an ideal or an unforeseen chance was to be seized and improved. Moreover, repeated failure did not dishearten him. Detesting garrison life, he neglected its duties, and endured punishment, but he secured regular promotion; defeated again and again before the citadel of Ajaccio, each time he returned undismayed to make a fresh trial under new auspices or in a new way.

"He was no spendthrift, but he had no scruples about money. He was proud in the headship of his family, and reckless as to how he should support them, or should secure their promotion. Solitary in his boyhood, he had become in youth a companion and leader; but his true friendships were not with his social equals, whom he despised, but with the lowly, whom he understood. Finally, here was a citizen of the world, a man without a country: his birthright was gone, for Corsica repelled him; France he hated, for she had never adopted him. He was like-

wise without a profession, for he had neglected that of a soldier, and had failed both as an author and as a politician. He was apparently, too, without a single guiding principle; the world had been a harsh stepmother, at whose knee he had neither learned the truth nor experienced kindness. He appears consistent in nothing but in making the best of events as they occurred. So far he was a man neither much better nor much worse than the world in which he was born. He was quite as unscrupulous as those about him, but he was far greater than they in perspicacity, adroitness, adaptability, and persistence. During the period before his expulsion from Corsica these qualities of leadership were scarcely recognizable, but they existed. As yet, to all outward appearance, the little captain of artillery was the same slim, ill-proportioned, and rather insignificant youth; but at twenty-four he had had the experience of a much greater age. Unconscious of his powers, he had dreamed many day-dreams, and had acquired a habit of boastful conversation in the family circle; but, fully cognizant of the dangers incident to his place, and the unsettled conditions about him, he was cautious and reserved in the outside world."

HOW THEY EAT IN HUNGARY.

THE Hungarian *cuisine* of New York is familiar to the epicure, both because of its savory dishes and the fidelity of the Magyar *chef* to his national customs of preparing them. In a Spanish or German restaurant one may get a French *menu*, or *vice versa*, but in the Hungarian café Hungarian viands alone are served. This fact finds a degree of explanation in a letter recently contributed to *St. James's Gazette*, by a traveler, who therein gives his own gastronomic experience in the land of feasting and song and dance, from which we quote:

"A great deal might be written on the subject of Hungarian meals, which are peculiar, and boldly violate every law of dietetics. A good course of them would be an excellent cure for hypochondriacs. Superabundance and richness are the main features; nothing whatever is plain, or what the doctors call wholesome. Breakfast is the simplest meal—it usually consists of coffee, always admirably made, and little fancy rolls or cakes. Butter is rarely eaten—no doubt because so much of it enters into the composition of other things. I have seen a solid breakfast after the English fashion, consisting of a hot dish and two or three cold meats, washed down with several glasses of an excellent home-made spirit brewed from walnuts; but that is exceptional. Hungarian ladies, by the way, are most accomplished housewives and past-mistresses in the art of making preserves, sweets, spirits, and appetizing delicacies of every kind. They seem to have an infinite variety of dishes at their command, and if any of our gastronomic journalists are hard up for novelty, as they surely must be by this time, I recommend them to turn their attention to the Hungarian kitchen. The chief meal of the day is one o'clock dinner, which begins with soup and works through three or four courses of fish and meat, followed by sweets and so on. Supper at eight o'clock is like dinner, only less so. The soup occasionally reminds you of Russia, and the favorite fish, the 'fogás' from Lake Balaton, is the same as the Volga sterlet; but otherwise the cookery is entirely peculiar to the country. It is not greasy, but rich and savory in the highest degree. Plain joints are utterly eschewed, and nothing is carved. Meat of every kind, including game and other birds, is served up in the form of made dishes, with a thousand kinds of piquant sauce, in which páprika, the beloved red pepper made from capsicums, plays a great part. It is all exceedingly good—indeed, a great deal too good; once accustomed to it I think one would starve for lack of it in any other county, and that is, perhaps, why Hungarians lose their blithe demeanor away from home. In order to prevent disappointment, however, I ought to say that the native dishes they give you in hotels and restaurants are a mere travesty of the real thing.

"Not content with the audacious quality and quantity of their food, Hungarians still further defy the 'ministry of the interior' by eating with incredible rapidity, and this habit is universal. Everything disappears in the turn of a hand; and a meal which would last an hour and a half in England hardly takes a third of the time with them. Yet they are not a bit dyspeptic. Far from

it, they bear the signs of a digestive apparatus at peace with all the world, and in particular the prevalence of sound teeth among them is most striking. What is the secret? Is it the exhilarating air of the great plain?—which is quite equal, by the way, to the seaside or the mountain, though no doctor seems to think of it. Is it the bounteous sunlight or the active life? I prefer to attribute my own escape from the penalties of over-eating to one of their graceful customs, which consists in shaking hands after a meal and wishing you 'Good health.' The smile with which your hostess accompanies the words is a true carminative—that is to say, it 'acts like a charm.' This custom reminds me of another of a like character, which constantly enlivens the dinner-table—the drinking of healths and clinking of glasses. There is a special way of doing it; and the ladies, especially the young ladies, insist on its proper performance. Instead of being gingerly clinked, the glasses are brought smartly together with a good upward swing, and at the moment of contact you must look full into the lady's eyes. It is a most dangerous maneuver, as you will see if you try it; but everything about the Hungarian ladies is dangerous."

The writer here digresses to depict the charms of Hungarian family life, which he describes as "something delightful to contemplate," and in this connection he writes:

"Perhaps my experiences have been exceptionally fortunate; but family life in this country, as I have seen it, is a thing delightful to contemplate. It has a patriarchal character, which has disappeared from more Western nations. The husband is the head of the wife, the father the head of the family, and authority used with kindness maintains an harmonious order. Mutual affection, confidence, and respect prevail between all the members of the family to a degree rarely seen in more 'emancipated' households, and also extend to relations by marriage. Grown-up sons kiss their father's hand and then his face, and sons-in-law are not less respectful. Women are neither relegated to a submissive drudgery, as in Germany, nor exalted to a pinnacle of artificial helplessness; they are neither crushed nor petted. Still less do they assume the position of the 'new woman.' On the contrary, they take the place indicated by nature, finding their happiness in making others happy, and so winning a genuine—not an affected—deference. Thus the lady of the house takes the head of the table; but if there is any waiting to be done, the women do it, and very prettily it becomes them. Such service does not prevent their being thoroughly intelligent, well read, and accomplished."

SHRIEKING WHISTLE AND CLANGING BELL.

WHY should the ear-splitting steam-whistle and the brazen-mouthed bell any longer be tolerated as adjuncts of industrial and social life? They are certainly nuisances, and should be relegated to the region of outcast things. Charles Dudley Warner so thinks, and formulates his thought in the "Editor's Study" of *Harper's Magazine*, January. After deploring the fact that what the foreigner most notices in this country is "noise," he says:

"In all thickly settled communities the ears are split and outraged by the steam-whistle of the factories and the locomotives. In the depths of the night the startled sleeper has the veil of seclusion torn away from him by the scream of the whistles, the invalid's excited nerves are worn to rags by the barbarous pipe of the locomotive. We shrink and suffer with only faint protest. It is only a part of the universal noise and hubbub. Most of this screaming of the steam-demon is absolutely unnecessary in this day of clocks and watches and guarded railway crossings. But if we must have the whistle, why not invent one that is moderately musical instead of being a torture? This is a suggestion of quiet-loving people, who find the noise of our American life every day more intolerable. Perhaps any abatement of it would not suit the majority, who like to go tearing and whooping through the world. . . .

"There are very few bells in the United States that are agreeable to the ear. The foundries seem to go on the idea that anything in the shape of a bell will answer the purpose, with little or no regard to its tone, and we are called to church with the same metallic anger that invites us to a fire. The manufacturers

are probably indifferent because the public are indifferent. Their products are mechanical, and only by chance musical. That this does not arise altogether from ignorance of what a bell should be is proved by the existence in the country of a few sets of musical chimes. It is possible, then, to make single bells agreeable. Apparently now they are cast in a conventional form, with as little regard to their sound as a blacksmith has for that of a horseshoe when he forges it. The shape is determined with little consideration for the sound it will produce, and if the particles of molten metal happen to arrange themselves musically, it is only by chance. No wonder that the great cultivated public are tired of bells, and wish their noise was not added to the other noises of the city!"

Mr. Warner thinks that the bell in the United States is mainly perpetuated on account of its poetic traditions, and that it might possibly be added to the poetry of our daily life.

"What," says he, "so agreeable as a musical bell in a country church tower, sounding out over the farms and the forests, ringing the joyful peals for the occasions and anniversaries of pleasure, or speaking in the sad sweet voice of sorrow? What seems to come with such benediction from the sky as the musical notes from the city steeples, sounding out over the roar and rout of the town?"

"And the bell might so easily be turned into a delight instead of an annoyance. Travelers come back from foreign parts with memories of musical bells—chimes and sweet-toned solitary bells—in cathedrals, in mountain convents, in Alpine valleys and passes, and on the shores of historic lakes. Even the small bells for domestic use are pitched to a pleasing key; in Cyprus the donkey-bells are so silvery and soft as to beguile the donkey into the idea that he is always going to a wedding. Why cannot we take a lesson from our neighbor Mexico? There the bells are almost all of them melodious; the harsh bell is an exception, and is modern. They say that silver enters into their composition, but there is more art and musical taste in their composition than silver. It is not enough to cast a bell in a certain form. Its edges must be made thick or thin to produce a desired musical vibration, and it is tuned, filed, and fitted to the note required. And then attention is paid to the manner in which the bell is struck, and the material of the instrument used for evoking the sound. There is the need of art in the making and ringing of a bell, as in the making and playing of a piano. We appear to be content with any mass of metal cast in the bell-shape, and to let a ringer with the instinct of a blacksmith evoke its dissonance with a sledge-hammer."

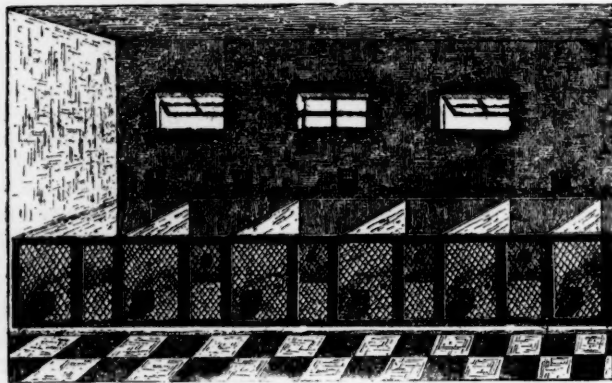
Defoe's Diary Vindicated.—Says a London exchange: "One of the most curious illustrations of Japanese progress lately noted is the presence in the weekly abstract of sanitary reports issued by the Marine Hospital Service of an able and elaborate report relative to the plague in China by Prof. S. Kitasito, who was sent to Hong Kong by the Japanese Government to study the etiology of the plague by modern methods. Dr. Kitasito, with great courage and the most careful minuteness of research, appears to have studied the characteristics of the bubonic plague in the most satisfactory manner, and he has clearly established by bacteriological observations that the disease owes its origin to a bacillus, the presence of which can be detected in the blood, in the glandular swellings, and in the spleen and other internal organs of the victims. In the course of his researches he drew blood from the finger-tips of dying victims, and examined it under the microscope, and participated in numerous post-mortem examinations, and made experiments on animals with cultivations of the bacilli thus obtained.

"One singular result of his investigation is an explanation of the hitherto scarcely credited statement, which has come down to us from the days of Daniel Defoe and his 'Diary of the Plague of London,' that in visitations of this peculiar character mice and rats emerge from their holes and drop dead. This was supposed to be the result of some miasmatic fever accompanying the plague. Dr. Kitasito gathered up quantities of dust from the floors of the infected houses in Hong Kong and administered that dust to rats and mice. In nearly every case the result was fatal. Some of the animals died from tetanus, others with distinct plague symptoms, and the same bacilli were found in their internal organs as in those of the plague patients who had succumbed. Dr. Kitasito described the bacilli as resembling in some respects the bacilli of chicken cholera."

A FOOD SUPPLY FOR THE FUTURE.

IN the way of furnishing a food supply for the future, and especially for the poor, the rabbit industry, we are told, offers remarkable advantages. To cheer up the readers of Malthus, who are apprehensive of starvation for the race in the dim and distant future, writers have described the wonderful possibilities in the way of a fish supply, and others more recently have suggested the manufacture of food by chemistry out of the elements round about us in the air, the water, and the earth. Now comes another writer suggesting the cultivation of rabbits on a large scale, and explaining the advantages they present in point of economy. The article is found in *Nordstjernen*, Copenhagen, and runs as follows:

"The rabbit supplies in many ways the requirements of 'the poor man's food.' The poor can easily raise them, for they are cheap to keep and their propagating power is most extraordinary. Pennant has calculated that one pair will in four years' time, if all the young ones are kept alive, have multiplied into 1,274,840. A female rabbit casts young ones eight times a year; if she casts seven at the average, she bears fifty-six all told in a year. Let us say she bears fifty per year and estimate each at ten pounds; she produces five hundred pounds of meat in a year. As many



INTERIOR OF A RABBIT PEN.

poor people could get the rabbit's food free of cost, they could practically get a few hundred pounds of meat for nothing. The rabbit skins are worth something, when prepared. Under various names twenty million rabbit skins are exported yearly from Australia to London. London alone uses every week half a million rabbits, most of which come from Belgium. Belgium earns yearly 50,000,000 to 60,000,000 francs [\$10,000,000 to \$12,000,000] on rabbits; France, 400,000,000 francs [\$80,000,000]."

The author next describes the various breeds suitable for food, and recommends the Norman rabbit, bred in the neighborhood of Cherbourg and Rouen, as the best. In South France and Spain they raise the Angora rabbit, whose hair they cut frequently and spin into a fabric they call cashmir. A cross between the Angora rabbit and the Russian rabbit produces a fine stock and still better hair than that of the original Angora. Of the manner of raising the rabbits we are told:

"No success can be had in rabbit-raising on a large scale unless one scrupulously attends to the cleanliness of the animals, their feeding by strict and regular rules, the separation of the two sexes till they are fully developed. . . . The rabbits can be reared in isolated small pens or in large houses, built for the purpose. But under all circumstances the animals kept for breeding must be isolated, the males and females in special boxes of about one and one-half square yards bottom surface, and of an inside height of about one yard. . . . The disagreeable smell so often observed around rabbits comes from lack of cleanliness. . . . Special nests must be prepared for the females; the males do not need them. Our illustration shows a stable on a large scale. . . . The natural food for rabbits is vegetable; almost all refuse from a vegetable store is suitable. In the Spring when green fodder is scarce, the rabbits eat carrots and other roots. They must never get onions."—Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.

ENVIABLE CONDITION OF CHINESE WOMEN.

IT will seem incredible to most of us that the "emancipation of women" is further advanced in China than in Europe, but to this statement M. Schlegel committed himself recently in an address before the Congress of Orientalists in Geneva, Switzerland. In fact, one is almost persuaded from his remarks that the "tyrants" of China are the women, the "slaves" are the men, and that petticoat government is rife, despite the precaution taken years ago to curtail its power by deforming the feet of the women. All this is so contrary to the accepted notions of Western peoples in regard to the social condition of Chinese women, that it is interesting to note just what M. Schlegel said to make sure that he was in earnest. *Cosmos*, of Paris, gives the substance of his remarks, which were made before a large and very fashionable audience. The speaker maintained that the social condition of women in China is in most respects superior to that of European women, and that this has been the case as far back as we can trace. According to the report in *Cosmos* (which we translate), he said:

"The most ancient Chinese literary document that we possess, the Book of Odes, shows us that the Chinese woman of prehistoric times enjoyed entire liberty in her actions and conduct. Women was independent, loved, and worthily commended by the poets. Without doubt parents rejoiced more at the birth of a son, who could continue the worship of his ancestors; but girls were also welcomed into the world. 'A daughter,' says a Chinese father, 'is better than nothing.' How, indeed, could such a one resist a pretty little daughter who clasped her arms around his neck and asked for a bit of silver?

"Chinese ladies of rank made life hard for their husbands; so much so that in the public opinion of those days it was better to burn one's feet than to marry a great lady. The husband was not master in his own house; he did not even dare to receive his friends. He could not absent himself without good excuse, while Madame came and went at her own pleasure. Her life was passed in playing music and reading romances.

"The example being set in the upper classes, all the husbands among the common people were soon under petticoat government, just like those of the princesses. The situation of the poor men became so intolerable that the Government was forced to interfere. To prevent women from gallivanting, the plan was adopted of mutilating their feet. To-day the Chinese regard this mutilation as a sign of distinction. Such is the power of fashion!"

M. Schlegel deplored this fashion, the more so as the Chinese women have naturally very pretty feet; but he does not think it any more cruel than the tortures to which our own fashionable women are subjected in order to give them sylph-like waists. Of the Chinese women of to-day he proceeded to speak as follows:

"The Chinese women of to-day have nothing to complain of. They are not forced to do hard work in the fields. Conjugal quarrels are rare in yellow households. If any one suffers, it is the husband, who is referred to in feminine conversation at Chinese five-o'clock teas as 'the old slave.' It was reported to a Chinese prince, 'The rebels march against you on the North and your wife is approaching on the South.' 'Push to the North!' responded the prince. The emancipation of woman is much further advanced in China than in Europe."

M. Schlegel then recalled the names of a great number of Chinese women who have become illustrious in literature, science, and art, and some of whom have had even great political influence. He continued:

"As to the character of the mother-in-law, it appears to be nearly the same in China as it is represented in our current comedies.

"Widows are treated with great consideration and second marriages are condemned by public opinion. Chinese sons have great respect for their mothers. In the ceremonies of New Year's Day, the Emperor himself, after having received the homage of the great dignitaries, prostrate before him, kneels before the queen-mother in token of submission."—Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.

BUSINESS OUTLOOK.

The Bank Statement.

The weekly statement of the Associated Banks showed an increase of \$1,368,175 in the amount of reserve held above the 25 per cent. legal requirements, and the surplus held now amounts to \$35,268,850. The banks have still been accumulating gold, for specie gains \$1,663,600 in the face of a loss of \$1,600,000 in legal tenders. Loans contracted \$5,619,200, and deposits decreased \$5,218,300. Circulation increased \$103,300.

At the Stock Exchange call loans have been made almost exclusively at 1½ per cent., though some small amounts have been placed at 2 per cent. Banks and trust companies have been unable in some cases to obtain 2 per cent. Indications point to lower rates after the January disbursements are completed. The demand for time contracts is not urgent, but lenders are indisposed to make concessions and rates are firm at 2 per cent. for thirty days, 2½ per cent. for sixty to ninety days, 3 per cent. for four months, and 3½ per cent. for six months on good Stock Exchange collateral. The demand for first-class commercial paper continues good, and brokers report a small supply. Rates are 2½ a 3 per cent. for sixty to ninety day receivables, with some offered at 2½ per cent.; 2½ a 3 per cent. for four months' commission house names and prime four months' single names; 2½ a 3½ for prime six months' and 3½ a 6 per cent. for good four to six months' single names.

The New York Clearing House reported as follows: Exchanges, \$84,951,275; balances, \$6,387,618.

The following is a comparison of the averages of the New York banks for the last two weeks:

	*Dec. 20.	Dec. 22.	Decrease.
Loans.....	\$492,647,000	\$498,266,200	\$5,619,200
Specie.....	73,760,600	72,097,000	1,663,600
Legal tenders...	98,831,100	100,431,100	1,600,000
Deposits.....	549,291,400	554,509,700	5,218,300
Circulation.....	11,294,700	11,191,400	103,300

* Five days. † Increase.

—The Journal of Commerce, December 31.

General View.

Aside from the holiday trade in a retail way, the general business of the country has been quiet during the week, which is usually the case at the close of the year. The cold snap, however, which extends over a wide section of territory, is likely to lead to an increased distribution of winter fabrics, the sales of which have been checked somewhat heretofore in consequence of the mild weather.

The usual compilations of failures during the year have been made up, but the mercantile agencies differ widely in their figures. Bradstreet's makes the total number of mercantile failures 12,721, or 18 per cent. less than in 1893, when the total was 15,560. The liabilities this year aggregate \$149,500,000, a reduction of 63 per cent. from 1893, and the assets foot up \$79,600,000, a falling off of 70 per cent. The same authority states that seventy-eight banks suspended this year, owing \$15,482,000, against 598 last year, with liabilities of \$170,000,000. On the other hand Dun & Co. estimate the number of commercial failures at 14,292, against 15,242 last year, with liabilities of \$163,238,404, against \$346,779,889. These figures do not include banks, bankers and financial and transportation companies. While both of these exhibits show an improvement over 1893, they make a very poor contrast with previous years, when a normal condition of affairs prevailed. Tariff tinkering and attempts at unsound currency legislation by the Democratic majority in Congress, in connection with labor strikes and low prices for products, have been mainly responsible for a large number of failures this year.

In this connection, however, it is only justice to state that in consequence of the trials through which they have passed during the year merchants now have their affairs on a very conservative basis, and generally speaking are in a position to meet any emergency likely to arise. Liabilities have been greatly reduced, and the usual semi-annual inventories show much smaller stocks than usual on hand.

The principal event in financial circles was the dissolution of the Government bond syndicate,

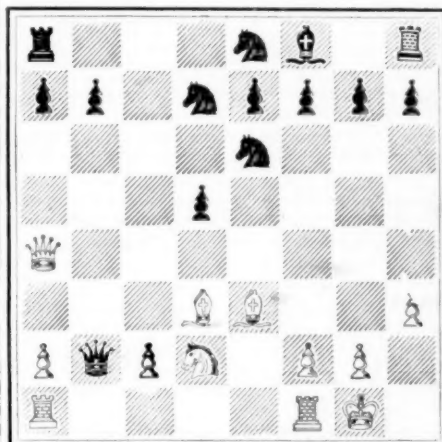
brought about through the action of the Administration in its recommendations to Congress on the currency question, which destroyed the market for the bonds and caused a sharp decline in the price. This action was regarded as nothing short of treachery and met with the severest condemnation in the banking community. The gold exports to Europe fell off to \$750,000, and the shipment of this small sum was made possible only through a decline in sterling at Paris. The consensus of opinion, however, is that exports will be resumed on a larger scale in the new year and that the Treasury gold reserve will be further depleted. Speculation on the Stock Exchange drifted into extreme dullness, and the changes were important only in a few properties, which were influenced by special causes.—The Mail and Express, December 29.

CHESS.

Problem 40.

We give as our next problem an end game that occurred in actual play between Dr. Tarrasch and M. von Scheve.

Von Scheve, Black—14 Pieces.



Tarrasch, White—12 Pieces.*

Black has just played Kt—Q 2 in answer to Q—R 4, ch.; the game continued:

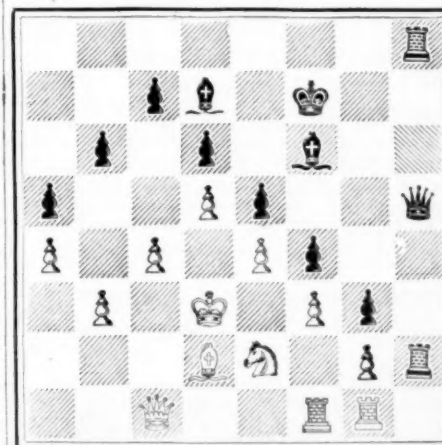
White.	Black.
13 Q R—Kt	Q—B 6
14 R x Q Kt P	Kt—B 2
15 B—Q 4	Q x Kt
16 R x Kt	R—Q

White mates in three moves.

A Gem from Dresden.

The New Orleans Times-Democrat publishes the following charming ending of a game played September 5, 1894, in the fourth round of the Dresden Congress, between Adolf Zinkle, of Vienna, and D. Janowski, of Paris. The position on the diagram is that after White's forty-second move, R—K B sq:

Black—M. Janowski.



White—M. Zinkle.

Mr. Janowski won as follows:

White.	Black.
42.....	B—K R 6! (a)
43 B x B P (b)	P x B
44 P x B	Q—K 4
45 Q x P (c)	Q—Q Kt 7!
46 Q—K 3	R x Kt!

And White resigns.

Notes.

(a) A beautiful stroke, initial to a conclusion so subtle as to be almost problem-like.

(b) Clearly not 43 P x B, for then 43... P—K Kt 7 and 44... B—K R 5!

(c) Only a temporary hindrance to the menaced advance of the adverse K Kt P; but his only resource at that.

The Inter-Collegiate Tournament.

Eight representatives of four colleges—Columbia, Harvard, Yale, and Princeton—have been playing chess in New York City. We give below one of the best games of the series, and one of the most important from the fact that Ballou, of Harvard, and Bumstead, of Yale, are considered the strongest players of the college men, and on this game depended the destination of the cup. Although Bumstead really had made a fine attack in the opening by the sacrifice of Pawn (twelfth move), yet Ballou averted the threatened danger, and won in fine style. The game:

ZUKERTORT OPENING.

BUMSTEAD.	BALLOU.	BUMSTEAD.	BALLOU.
White.	Black.	White.	Black.
1 Kt—K B 3	P—Q 4	25 Q—B 2	K R—R
2 P—Q 4	P—K 3	26 R—R	Q—Q B 5
3 P—B 4	Kt—K B 3	27 K R—Q B	P—Q 5
4 Kt—B 3	Q Kt—Q 2	28 P x P	P x P
5 P—B 5	P—Q Kt 3	29 Q—K 2	Q x Q
6 P—Q Kt 4	B—K 2	30 Kt x Q	P—K 4
7 P—K 3	P—Q R 4	31 R—B 4	R x P
8 Q—R 4	Castles	32 R x R	R x R
9 B—Q 2	B—Kt 2	33 R—B 8 ch	Kt—B
10 R—Q B	R P x P	34 K Kt 4	P—B 3
11 Q x P	R—R 2	35 P x P	P x P
12 Q—Kt	P x P	36 R—K 8	Q—Q 6
13 Q Kt—Kt 5	R—R	37 R—Q 8	P—Q 7
14 P x P	Kt x P	38 Kt—B	P—K 5
15 B—Kt 4	K Kt—Q 2	39 Kt x B	P—K 6
16 B—K 2	B—R 3	40 Kt—B 3	R—Kt 7
17 K Kt—Q 4	B x Kt	41 Kt—B	R—Q 7
18 B x B	B—Q 3	42 R x Kt ch	K x R
19 Castles	Kt—K 5	43 K—B	R—Q 8 ch
20 Kt—B 6	Q—R 5	44 K—K 2	R x Kt
21 B x B	Kt x B	45 K x P	R—B 8
22 Kt—Q 4	Kt x B	46 Resigns	
23 Kt x Kt	P—Q B 4		
24 K—B 3	R—R 4		

The record up to date is as follows:

Players.	COLUMBIA.	Won.	Lost.
J. Binion, '95 M.....	1½	2½	4
A. M. Price, Law....	0	4	4
Totals.....	1½	6½	
	HARVARD.		
S. M. Ballou, Law.....	4	0	1
Walter L. Van Kleeck, '95.....	3	0	1
Totals.....	7	1	
	YALE.		
Arthur Bumstead, '95.....	2	2	2
R. L. Ross, '96.....	2	2	2
Totals.....	4	4	
	PRINCETON.		
W. V. Belden, '95.....	1½	2½	2
Ed. R. Seymour, '98.....	2	2	2
Totals.....	3½	4½	

Solutions of Problems.

E. M. B., Crescent Athletic Club, Brooklyn, sends correct solution of Nos. 37 and 38.

J. H. Witte, Portland, Ore., and E. Daubney, Ottawa, Canada, were successful with No. 37. J. R. Cox, Auburn, N. Y.; F. H. Eggers, Great Falls, Mont., and J. D. Wells, Des Moines, Ia., found the key to No. 38.

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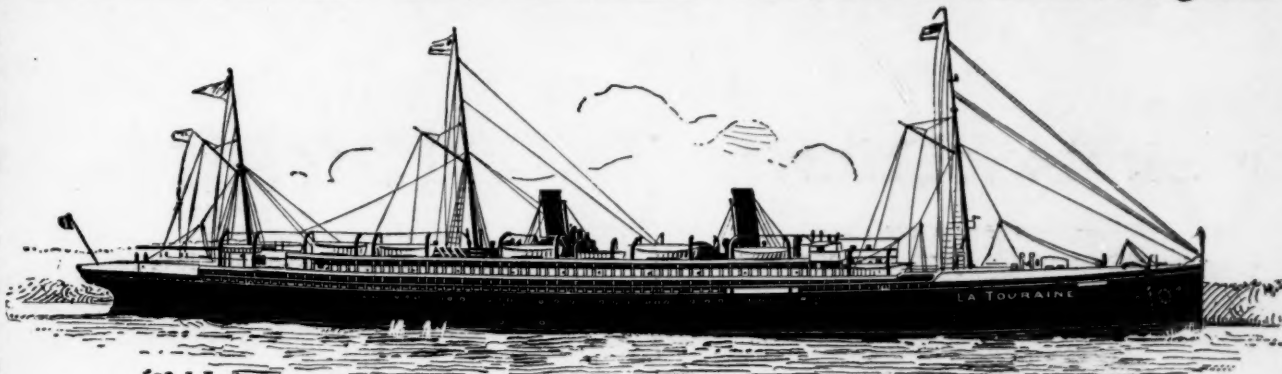
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Punta Delgada (Azores.)	2220	Feb. 11th	6 hrs.	" 11th
Lisbon.....	822	" 13th	24 "	" 14th
Gibraltar.....	300	" 15th	24 "	" 16th
Barcelona.....	512	" 18th AM	15 "	" 18th PM
Marseilles { *Nice..... *Monte Carlo *Cannes.....	195	" 19th AM	4 days	" 22d PM
Villefranche.....	120	" 23d AM	6 hrs.	" 23d PM
Naples (*Rome).....	340	" 24th AM	3 days	" 27th AM
Messina.....	173	" 27th PM	15 hrs.	" 28th PM
Syracuse.....	67	" 28th PM	24 "	Mar. 1st PM
Alexandria { *Cairo..... and the *Pyramids.	808	Mch. 3d PM	5 days	" 8th PM
Jaffa (*Jerusalem).....	255	" 9th AM	3 1/2 "	" 12th PM
Smyrna.....	656	" 14th AM	15 hrs.	" 15th PM
Constantinople.....	270	" 15th AM	3 days	" 18th PM
The Piræus (*Athens).....	352	" 19th PM	2 "	" 21st PM
Malta.....	544	" 23d AM	15 hrs.	" 23d PM
Tunis.....	229	" 24th AM	2 days	" 26th AM
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TOURING THE MEDITERRANEAN.

The Right and the Wrong Way.

The advantages of this general plan of a winter's cruise on a first-class steamship through the whole length of the Mediterranean, with pauses of varying length at the most important ports on the European, Asiatic, and North African shores of this inexpressibly-fascinating inland sea—about which thousands of years of history have centered—do not need much further argument. The plan was an experiment only a few years ago. It is now a demonstrated success. The writer has tried the plan of visiting most of these same points upon the Mediterranean coast by the very different plan of trusting to ordinary local means of communication. He has found his way into the eastern Mediterranean from one port to another by means of the small coasting steamers which fly the Russian, Egyptian, Austrian, French, German and Italian flags. He has had to share stuffy staterooms with unspeakable Turks, and eat unsavory meals on soiled tablecloths with all sorts of Levantine and Oriental table companions. He has been subjected to annoyances in Turkish custom-houses, and to endless friction with dishonest and extortionate hotel-keepers. The wear and tear of this method of travel in an attempt to see the fringes of the Mediterranean is really a serious drawback. At most of these points one does not care to stay very long, and it is an annoyance to hunt up a hotel and then, after a day of sight-seeing, to repack one's box or bag—with a wise traveler it will be the smallest possible bag—find a connection either by rail or by some coasting vessel, and hurry on to the next point of interest. The process requires the devotion of at least half of one's time to the mere details of haggling with cabmen, quarreling with hotel-keepers over extra charges for candles and service, making connections, and bothering over other distracting minor annoyances.

The Luxurious Route on La Touraine.

But consider for a half a minute the luxury of a Mediterranean cruise in a beautiful floating palace like *La Touraine*, for example. One lives continually on the ship. Once comfortably ensconced in his stateroom at New York, the traveler has only to adjust himself to his luxurious environment, and need not bother with any packing or unpacking until his twelve-thousand miles journey is at an end, and he gathers his traps together as Sandy Hook is sighted on the return trip. To an experienced tourist who wants to cover numerous points on his journey, and desires to have a mind free to see many sights and accomplish much, this relief from everlasting packing and unpacking in European and Asiatic hotels is an almost inestimable boon. If the traveler's purse is long he would be willing to pay hundreds of dollars for that one advantage of the continuous cruise over the broken journey, that requires adjustment to the conditions of fifty hotels.

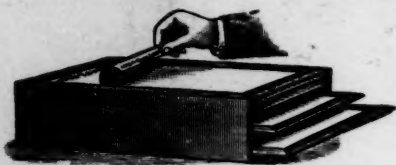
La Touraine will be especially fitted up for this 12,000 miles tour to these lands replete with historic and artistic interest. Instead of carrying 1,100 passengers, the number of tourists will be restricted to about 260, and therefore, of course, most choice accommodations will be at hand for all passengers. Naturally, the third-class apartments of *La Touraine* will not be used at all, and that quarter of the vessel will be devoted to a spacious laundry during the trip.

Under these circumstances this excursion will be one of rare enjoyment. With the best rooms of the great steamship at their disposal; with the table which the skillful French chefs of the steamship will keep supplied with the most delicious viands; with the aid of *La Touraine's* staff of officers in making the most of opportunities for recreation—the members of this party are indeed to be envied.

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